Causal Attributions for Successful Career Strategies

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

INTRODUCTION 1

METHOD 23

Subjects 23

Instruments 23

Procedure 24

RESULTS 26

DISCUSSION 91

REFERENCES 106

APPENDIX A: CAREER STRATEGY FACTORS 114

APPENDIX B: CAREER STRATEGY DESCRIPTIONS 116

APPENDIX C: RATING SCALES 125

LIST OF TABLES

Table — Page

1. Main effect for sex of manager for ratings of appropriateness 26

2. Main effect for sex of manager for ratings of effectiveness 27

3. Main effect for career strategy for ratings of appropriateness 29

4. Main effect for career strategy for ratings of effectiveness 30

5. Interaction between career strategy and sex of subject for ratings of appropriateness 33

6. Interaction between career strategy and sex of manager for ratings of effectiveness 36

7. Pearson correlation coefficients for attributional ratings 39

8. Main effect for career strategy for attributions of effort 41

9. Main effect for career strategy for attributions of task difficulty 42

10. Main effect for career strategy for attributions of luck 44

11. Main effect for career strategy for attributions of overall ability 49

12. Interaction between career strategy and sex of manager for attributions of effort 50

13. Interaction between career strategy and sex of manager for attributions of luck 52

14. Interaction between career strategy and sex of manager for attributions of overall ability . . . 54

15. Interaction between career strategy and sex of manager for attributions of effort 59

16. Interaction between career strategy and sex of subject for attributions of overall ability . . . 61

LIST OF TABLES - CON'T

Table		Page
17.	Pearson correlation coefficients for ratings of specific management abilities	64
18.	Main effect for career strategy for ratings of planning ability	65
19.	Main effect for career strategy for ratings of representing ability	67
20.	Main effect for career strategy for ratings of investigating ability	68
21.	Main effect for career strategy for ratings of negotiating ability	70
22.	Main effect for career strategy for ratings of coordinating ability	71
23.	Main effect for career strategy for ratings of evaluating ability	73
24.	Main effect for career strategy for ratings of supervising ability	74
25.	Main effect for career strategy for ratings of staffing ability	77
26.	Main effect for sex of subject for ratings of planning ability	78
27.	Main effect for sex of subject for ratings of negotiating ability	79
28.	Main effect for sex of subject for ratings of supervising ability	80
29.	Main effect for sex of subject for ratings of staffing ability	81
30.	Interaction between career strategy and sex of subject for ratings of planning ability	85
31.	Interaction between career strategy and sex of subject for ratings of negotiating ability	87
32.	Interaction between career strategy and sex of subject for ratings of evaluating ability	89

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure — Page

1. Interaction between sex of subject and career strategy for ratings of appropriateness 32

2. Interaction between sex of manager and career strategy for ratings of effectiveness 35

3. Interaction between sex of manager and carrer strategy for ratings of effort 46

4. Interaction between sex of manager and career strategy for ratings of luck 47

5. Interaction between sex of manager and career strategy for ratings of overall management ability 48

6. Interaction between sex of subject and career strategy for ratings of effort 57

7. Interaction between sex of subject and career strategy for ratings of overall management ability 58

8. Interaction between sex of subject and career strategy for ratings of planning ability 82

9. Interaction between sex of subject and career strategy for ratings of negotiating ability 83

10. Interaction between sex of subject and career strategy for ratings of evaluating aiblity 84

Causal Attributions for Successful Career Strategies

Tamra Jean Hall

An apparent barrier to women's advancement in managerial fields is the presence of overt or covert prejudice and discrimination. Perhaps the most widely cited explanation for this discrimination is the existence of sex role stereotypes. Sex role stereotyping is concerned with the extent to which individuals believe that one sex is more likely to possess and exhibit a particular set of traits and abilities than is the other sex. Traditionally, women have been viewed as possessing such characteristics as passivity, dependency, intuitiveness, and emotionality. On the other hand, men are seen as aggressive, independent, dominant, and even-tempered (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972; Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, Rosenkrantz, & Vogel, 1970). These characteristics commonly attributed to men are also viewed as requisite traits for managerial success. Schein (1973, 1975) found that both male and female managers perceive successful managers as possessing traits and attributes that they more often ascribed to men in general rather than to women in general.

Several researchers have demonstrated the negative effect of sex role stereotyping on various personnel decisions. Levitin, Quinn, and Staines (1971) identified two types of discrimination that women may encounter as they

seek employment is historically male occupations. Access discrimination refers to the inability to gain entrance into particular jobs. Women may simply not be offered the job; or, they may recive an offer, but at such a low starting salary that they are forced to refuse. The end result of both actions is that women are not hired to fill these positions. Both college students and professional interviewers have been found to accept bogus male applicants for managerial positions more often than equally qualified female applicants (Dipboye, Arvey, & Terpstra, 1975, 1977; Dipboye, Fromkin, & Wiback, 1975; Rosen and Jerdee, 1974). Male applicants were also rated as more suitable for the position, more likely to fit in well in the organization, and as having a greater potential for long service (Rosen and Jerdee, 1974). Even though Terborg and Ilgen (1975) found that women were hired as often as men, subjects allocated significantly lower starting salaries to those women who were recommended for hire

Women may also be the victims of treatment discrimination. Although the establishment of federal and social legislation has opened many career doors for women, they may still experience discrimination after the initial employment decision. Treatment discrimination against women has been reported in the areas of initial job assignment (Taylor and Ilgen, 1975, 1981), selection to attend training

conferences (Rosen and Jerdee, 1974), second year salary offers (Terborg and Ilgen, 1975) and promotion (Rosen and Jerdee, 1974).

Attributions for Outcomes

The sex role stereotyped beliefs that an individual possesses serve as a set of expectations for performance outcomes. Attribution theory is concerned with the degree to which achievement-related outcomes are consistent or inconsistent with the performance expectations individuals hold for themselves or others (Deaux, 1976). Wiener (1971) postulated that when attempting to explain performance outcomes, individuals will employ four elements of ascription. These elements can be categorized along two dimensions. The locus of control dimension categorizes the elements as factors internal to the individual (ability and effort) or factors external to the individual (task difficulty or luck). The elements can be further classified as relatively stable factors (ability and task difficulty) or temporary factors (effort and luck).

Deaux (1976) elaborated on Weiner's attribution model by entering expectancy of success as an antecedent variable that mediates between the achievement outcome and the perceived causality of the outcome. The model predicts that expected achievement events will be attributed to stable factors, while unexpected events will be attributed to

unstable factors Deaux disagreed with Weiner's classification of task difficulty as a stable characteristic. She argued that judgments of task difficulty are both situationally specific and inversely related to perceptions of the ability and effort of the performer and that task difficulty should therefore be viewed as a relatively temporary quality. In fact, Deaux did find that individuals perceive the difficulty of a task as a temporary rather than a stable characteristic. Therefore, while ability is predicted to be utilized for explanations of expected events, unexpected events may be ascribed to luck, effort, or task diffculty, depending on what information is available. Based on the very achievement oriented stereotype of males as competent, competitive, aggressive, and dominant, the expectancy of success for a man is predicted to be much higher (especially for a stereotypically masculine task) than the expectancy of success for women, who are stereotypically characterized as passive and noncompetitive (Deaux, 1976).

Support for these predictions has been well documented for attributions of achievement outcomes made for both self and others. McMahan (1973) found that subjects whose expectation of success was disconfirmed on a neutral (not sex typed) task made stronger attributions for their performance to effort and luck and weaker attributions to

ability. Self-evaluations from male and female managers of successful and unsuccesful job experiences have shown that men rate themselves as having more ability, greater intelligence, and greater responsibility for their success than do women for theirs (Deaux, 1979). Other research has shown that on masculine tasks or in traditionally masculine occupations, a women's success is more likely to be attributed by others to luck (Cash, Gillen, & Burns, 1977; Deaux and Emswiller, 1974; Reno, 1981), effort (Feldman-Summers and Keisler, 1974; Reno, 1981; Taynor and Deaux, 1973; 1975), or task ease (Feldman-Summers & Keisler, 1974), whereas a man's success is more likely to be attributed to ability factors (Cash et al., 1977; Deaux & Emswiller, 1974; Feather & Simon, 1975). This attributional bias against women, however, may exist only in the presence of sex role stereotypes. Garland and Price (1977) found a strong relationship between subjects' scores on the Attitudes Toward Women in Management Scale (Peters, Terborg, & Taynor, 1974) and causal attributions. Men who held negative attitudes toward women were more likely to attribute a female manager's success to luck or task ease. Positive attitudes were associated with attributions of women's success to the internal factors of ability or effort

Attributional processes that exist within an organizational context may have a direct impact on treatment discrimination against women. Even if a woman's performance is evaluated as

superior to identical performances of men (Bihoness, 1974; Hammer, Kim, Baird, & Bigoness, 1974), women may still not receive appropriate reward or recognition. Heilman and Guzzo (1978) found that promotions and pay raises were rated as more appropriate rewards when the success of male and female managers was ascribed to ability or effort rather than to luck or task ease. A woman's unexpected success may be integrated into existing stereotyped beliefs by attributing her success to nonability factors. Since the woman is viewed as noninstrumental to her achievement, her performance may be seen as less deserving of reward than a man's success, which is perceived as a relatively accurate indication of his future behavior.

Evaluation of Mode of Performance

Sex role stereotypes have not only been evoked as an explanation for expectations of performance outcomes, but also for expectations of the mode or style of performance. Performing identical tasks, women may be expected to conduct themselves in a traditionally feminine manner, such as demonstrating consideration and dependence, whereas men may be expected to use a more direct and forceful approach. Performance evaluations may be affected by these expectations to the extent that men and women adopt a mode of performance which is congruent with the evaluator's existing stereotypes. Where a man may be perceived as behaving "in role," the identical behavior by a woman may be

perceived as "out of role," or vice versa. For example, Lipps suggested that "a man who uses power in an open, direct, or confronting way, for purposes of self-assertion, showing strength, or winning, is likely to be evaluated more positively than a woman using power in similiar ways. A man using his power to promote compromise or understanding may be taking a larger risk of being evaluated as weak and of losing his power than would a woman" (1981, p.14).

Several researchers have investigated the perceptions and evaluations of various styles of behavior for men and women. However, the results of these investigations do not clearly support the prediction that sex role congruent behavior will be perceived as more positive or effective than incongruent behavior. Rosen and Jerdee (1975) found that descriptions of bogus female employees who conveyed their grievances over unjust organizational treatment in an aggressive, threatening style were favorably received by bank managers, whereas a polite, pleading style by women was less favorably received. On the other hand, a polite, pleading approach was perceived as more effective for male employees than was the aggresive, threatening behavior, although both approaches were fairly well received for men. The researchers concluded that both the sex of the employees and the style of presentation affect managers' receptivity to grievances. Their results also suggest that a wider range of behavior styles mey be effective for men than for women in appealing organizational injustices.

The aggressive, threatening style, although counter to sex role expectatons, may have been more effective for women because it provided additional information about the women than did sex role typical behavior. This additional information may have conveyed a greater intensity or conviction of the grievances to the managers.

The mode in which managers cope with conflict situations in the work environment has also been investigated (Mai-Dalton, 1979). Banking executives rated descriptions of bogus managers who employed an unemotional, calm coping strategy as more effective and more promotable than those employing an emotional, angry strategy, regardless of whether a man or woman was described as using the strategy. The emotional, angry behavior, however, was perceived more favorably if displayed by a female manager than if displayed by a male manager.

Perceptions of the effectiveness of various supervisory styles appear to be influenced by the sex of the supervisor. Rosen and Jerdee (1973) found that college students and bank supervisors evaluated a reward style of supervision as a more effective mode for male supervisors who were dealing with a personnel problem of high absenteeism and poor work performance than for female supervisors. Neither the use of a threatening style nor the use of a helping style, however, were differentially evaluated for men and women. Using nonmanagement production workers as subjects, Haccoun, Haccoun, and Sallay (1978) found that emotional,

friendly, and rational styles of supervision were rated as equally effective for both men and women. However, female managers who employed an authoritarian style of supervision were rated as less effective than a male manager using an identical style. In a similar study, Bartol and Butterfield (1976) found that female managers who were described as utilizing a consideration style were rated more positively than male managers using the same style. No differences were found between the ratings of male and female managers using styles of production emphasis or tolerance for freedom. Male managers who stressed initiating structure were viewed more positively than their female counterparts. Finally, Wiley and Eskilson (1982) found that men portrayed in a corporate setting were viewed as more effective and active when described as using an expert-based rather than reward-based influence technique. Opposite attributions were made for women in identical settings.

No clear conclusions can be drawn from these studies concerning the perceptions of sex role stereotypical styles of behavior. The results are both inconsistent and contradictory. While each study does reveal some type of interaction between the mode of performance and the sex of the performer, the specific processes that underlie this interaction still remain undetermined.

An important determinant of managers' organizational success may be the mode in which they choose to influence their co-workers and superiors to obtain personal benefits or acheive organizational goals. Although there is a profusion of literature dealing with the topic of how to succeed in business (Canni, 1979; Harrigan, 1977; Larwood & Wood, 1977), there has been little empirical research that specifically addresses the question of what behaviors or techniques actually result in corporate success.

One of the first efforts to systematically investigate career tactics was conducted by Dalton in 1951. Dalton examined factors that he believed might contribute to the success of 226 male managers. Within the organization studied, Dalton found no formal pattern of selection or promotion of managers that was related to age of managers when they entered the organization, rate of advancement within the organization, occupational experience, or type of educational training. Selection and promotional practices were based on informal processes related to a manager's religion, ethnic background, political beliefs, and participation in accepted social organizations. Among employees with equal ability, managers who were similar to upper management on social and political characteristics were more likely to succeed than those with dissimilar characteristics.

Bass (1968) supported Dalton's finding when he administered the Organizational Success Questionnaire to male managers and MBA students. The questionnaire provided a list of social and political behaviors, and asked subjects to rate how often they believed managers ought to demonstrate these activities in order to be successful. From the responses, six factors were obtained: (1) emphasize personal gain, (2) emphasize organizational gain, (3) share decision making, (4) emphasize candor, openness, trust, (5) bulff, obscure issues, and (6) maintain social distance. The respondents believed that the man who gets ahead in business is one who frequently engages in social and political activities.

Expanding the simple social and political tactic categories, Heisler and Gemmill (1978) administered a questionnaire to male executives and MBA students to determine their perceptions of what behaviors are successful for managers in terms of promotions. Six factors were discovered: (1) social presentability, (2) managerial competence, (3) superficial presentability, (4) visibility, (5) organizational demeanor, and (6) political skills. The important finding of this research is that both groups perceived ability factors as more important in promotional decisions than any other elements of a manager's behavior. However, career success cannot be accounted for solely by the demonstration of competence.

Using yearly income and company position as indicators of success, Sussman (1979) interviewed 1700 executives in 750 of the largest corporations in the U.S. When asked the open-ended question of what was the biggest single factor in their personal success, Sussman found a substantial correspondence among executives' responses. The most frequently mentioned perceived contributors to their success were hard work, ambition, and human relations.

This research indicates that managers view career tactics as valuable and that there is significant agreement concerning which tactics result in managerial success. Two shortcomings, however, can be identified in these studies. The Bass (1968), Heisler and Gemmill (1978), and Sussman (1979) articles reveal validation problems. Managers may respond that a career tactic is neccessary for success, but the data do not provide evidence that the respondents actually engage in the strategy or that the strategy is actually related to career success. These managers may simply be responding in the manner which is most expected or socially desirable. They may be reluctant to report activities that have aided their success but are not supported by the organization. An additional limitation of these studies is that they only examined male respondents' ratings of a male manager's success.

Larwood (1975) interviewed male and female management trainees regarding what characteristics are important for a

female manager's success. Trainees reported that characteristics such as competence, education, aggressiveness, and support of an influential male played a major role in women's success. Keown and Keown (1982) interviewed 21 successful female managers who entered the business world in the 1960's. These women indicated that job competence, good working relations with the boss, and capitalizing on opportunities were important sources of their promotions. In addition, having a mentor, education, having specific career goals, and luck were viewed as somewhat important to career advancement.

Larwood and Kaplin (1980) had female bank officers rate their preference for 51 career tactics and personality attributes in terms of their importance for the success of women in banking. Among the most prefered tactics were ability to make decisions, competence, coping successfully with pressure, and self-confidence. A factor analysis of the preference ratings for the 51 tactics revealed six factors: (1) managerial attitudes (firmness, motivation), (2) managing under pressure, (3) femininity, (4) reliance on structure, (5) taking nontraditional roles, and (6) insight. Two measures of success, self-assessed success and salary level, were also obtained for the women, and were correlated with the career tactic preferences. Tactics that were recommended by officers with higher salaries were learning from male models and giving top priority

to your job. Substantially different tactics were recommened by officers who had higher self-assessed success. These women selected tactics such as ability to make decisions, coping successfully with pressure, and joining a bank that is fast growing.

An important finding of the Larwood and Kaplin (1980) study was that strategies rated as preferable significantly less often than other strategies served as predictors for success. The tactic of learning from male models was not rated as preferable by most women, yet it predicted income category. In addition, the tactic of desire for authority predicted self-assessed success, and yet was not rated as a prefered tactic by most women. Therefore, preference or perceived importance of a strategy does not imply that the strategy actually facilitates success.

An extension of the Larwood and Kaplin (1980) research was conducted by Larwood, Radford, and Berger (1980) in an attempt to compare the tactical preferences of men and women at two organizational levels (low versus high executive status), and in two types of organizations (industrial versus nonindustrial). Three questions were addressed within the research: (1) Do men and women view their personal success differently? (2) Do men and women perceive different strategies as important in their career success? (3) Is the organizational success of men and women predicted by different tactical preferences?

Criticizing earlier research for examining limited measures of success, Larwood, Radford, and Berger (1980) obtained seven success measures for their subjects. Self-report measures of success were global success in the organization, perceived organizational level, time since promotion, perceived organizational level, time since promotion, income, satisfaction with career progress, and satisfaction with pay. A seventh measure was the actual level in the organization as classified by the companies' personnel offices. Even though male and female executives were matched in terms of their actual management levels, results showed that women rated their organizational level lower than did men. The authors interpreted this as demonstrating a high level of aspiration in their sample of women. The women's underrating of their position in the organizational hierarchy was viewed as a possible indication of their dissatisfaction with any position inferior to top status. An alternate interpretation, however, is that women are modestly reporting their organizational level to relieve any internal discomfort they may be experiencing due to the conflicting roles of femininity and executive success. Female managers also reported lower incomes than did males, but women reported that they had more recently received a promotion.

Subjects rated the importance of 82 strategies for attaining promotions or job advancement. A factor analysis of the ratings revealed seven factors. The first factor was

concerned with having or demonstrating abilities. This factor contained items such as ability to express yourself clearly, ability to meet deadlines, and development of a good record of accomplishments. Tactics such as a willingness to play organizational politics and having a sponsor at a high level loaded on a second factor labeled "politics." A third labeled "going along" or "compliance" was related to accepting the designated system of authority within the organization, and contained tactics such as not complaining about rules or procedures and being an advocate of company policies. A fourth factor labeled "education" dealt with having the appropriate training for the job. Having a good academic record and being a graduate of a high prestige college loaded on this factor. A fifth factor was composed of tactics that were related to a concern with role defined attributes. This factor was labeled "sex role," and contained tactics such as learning from male models, having close contacts with female personnel, and appearing as feminine as possible. Tactics related to a support for public moral and ethical codes loaded on a sixth factor labeled "public appearance." Activity in community affairs, being married, and regularly attending a house of worship loaded on this factor. A final factor, "vigilance," contained tactics such as making sure others don't take what is yours, demanding what is yours when you deserve it, and being willing to threaten

to leave. All the factors except vigilance were rated as advantageous to career success. Having or demonstrating abilities was rated as the most important strategy by subjects. Men felt that education was more important to success than did women. Public appearance was reported as important by women in upper level industrial, and by men in upper level non-industrial organizations, however women in lower level industrial and upper level non-industrial positions rated it as less important. In addition, lower level women believed that sex role was more important than did all other executives.

Correlating strategy preference with measures of organizational success, Larwood, Radford, and Berger (1980) found that the strategy factors predicted the self-report measures of success but did not predict the actual level of the executives as classified by the personnel offices. The individual who views himself or herself as successful, therefore, may differ from the individual who has actually obtained a successful position.

The exclusion of women from organizations' political networks has been cited as a major barrier to women's corporate advancement (O'Leary, 1974; Schein, 1978; Terborg, 1977). Although Larwood et al. (1980) discovered some differences between the tactical preferences of men and women managers, there appears to be substantial agreement as to what strategies will facilitate career success. Even though managers report a preference for the use of similiar

strategies, these strategies may be differentially perceived, by others, depending on whether a man or a woman is engaged in the behavior.

A pilot study was conducted by the present author to investigate the causal attributions of men and women's managerial success, given that they had achieved their success via one of ten career strategies. The strategies, based upon the items comprising six of the seven factors derived by Larwood, Radford, and Berger (1980), were (1) public appearances, (2) vigilance, (3) sex role, (4) politics, (5) compliance, (6) education, and four subfactors of the seventh factor (ability): (7) effort, (8) sensitivity to others, (9) being competitive, and (10) ability to express ideas. Male and female college students were presented with brief scenarios depicting either all successful male or all successful female managers using each of the ten career strategies. Following each description, subjects rated the manager on (1) managerial ability, (2) amount of effort exerted on managerial duties, (3) the level of difficulty of managerial duties, and (4) the extent to which luck was a factor in the manager's success.

A separate ANOVA was performed on each of the four attributional measures. All analyses yielded significant main effects for tactics. Managerial success using a political strategy was attributed to low ability, low effort, high luck, and task ease. The implementation of an

effort strategy resulted in attributions of high ability, high effort, low luck, and high task difficulty. In addition, the strategies of ability to express ideas and being competitive were attributed to high effort. In sum, managerial success that was portrayed as the result of a politically oriented strategy was attributed to external factors, whereas success as the result of employing strategies based upon effort, ability to express ideas, and being competitive (ability subfactors), was attributed to factors internal to the manager.

The results did not reveal attributional differences for sex of the manager. This finding may have emerged because sex of the manager was not a salient variable for the subjects. Deaux (1976) warned that research that requires subjects to make attributions for other's performance on a task should be interpreted with caution. If the characteristics of the task being evaluated are more salient to the subject than the sex of the stimulus person, the task characteristics may account for more of the variance in the attributional ratings than does gender. Sex of the manager, however, may become more salient if considered in conjunction with sex of co-workers. Rose (1978) found that attributions for a manager's performance were not affected solely by sex of the manager, but rather by an interaction between sex of the manager and sex of the subordinate. Greater effort was attributed by both male and female

subjects to managers who were presented as supervising subordinates predominately of the opposite sex. Rose cautioned that attributional research that does not include sex of the co-worker should be accepted with extreme discretion

Statement of Purpose

In sum, attribution theory proposes that expected achievement events will be ascribed to the abilities of the performer, while unexpected events will be ascribed to either luck, effort, or task difficulty (Deaux, 1976). While a man's success in traditionally masculine occupations would be perceived as an expected outcome, and thus attributed to his ability to perform the job, a woman's unexpected success would be resolved by ascribing her success to nonability factors. Stereotyped beliefs not only affect expectations of performance outcomes, but also expectations for mode of performance. Research examining various styles of performance have focused on the differential evaluations of the effectiveness of these styles for men and women. Some investigators support a sex role congruency hypothesis, which predicts that modes of performance consistent with existing stereotypes or expectations will be evaluated more positively than incongruent modes. Other researchers have argued that sex role incongruent behaviors are more effective, because they are unexpected and therefore provide additional or more salient information about the performer than congruent

behaviors. This research, however, does not address the question of what attributions are evoked to account for the effectiveness of these modes. While these two positions are in conflict concerning whether sex role congruent or incongruent behaviors will be perceived as more favorable and effective, both propositions assume that sex role stereotypical behaviors are expected modes, while sex role atypical behaviors are unexpected modes of performance. Therefore, attribution theory would predict that an individual's success as the result of engaging in expected modes of performance will be attributed to ability factors, whereas unexpected modes will be attributed to nonability factors.

The present study was designed to investigate the effects of mode of performance (i.e., differential career tactics) on the causal attributions for men and women's managerial success. Managerial success that resulted from nine separate career strategies was examined: (1) competitiveness, (2) effort, (3) communication, (4) sensitivity, (5) education, (6) compliance, (7) public appearance, (8) politics, and (9) vigilance (Larwood, Radford, & Berger, 1980). Those career strategies that emphasize ability, education, effort, competitiveness, politics, and vigilance appear to be more representative of the stereotypical aggressive, acheivement-oriented man who possesses high abilities, especially for traditionally masculine

tasks and occupations. Strategies based on compliance, public appearance, and sensitivity may be more consistent with stereotypical female characteristics such as submissiveness, dependence, and consideration. It is predicted that the attributions ascribed to successful managers will be influenced by the mode or style of behavior managers employ in order to achieve their career success. To the extent that sex role congruent career tactics are perceived as expected modes of performance, and sex role incongruent tactics are perceived as unexpected modes of performance, it is predicted that managerial success due to role congruent tactics will be attributed to ability factors, while success due to role incongruent tactics will be attributed to nonability factors.

Method

Subjects. Ninty-five male and 110 female undergraduate students from general psychology classess served as subjects and received class credit for their participation in the present study.

Instruments. Nine brief scenarios were developed describing either a male or female manager who had employed one of nine career strategies to achieve his/her corporate success. The career strategies represented the factors and subfactors derived from male and female managers' preference ratings for the use of 82 job tactics for attaining promotion or job advancement (Larwood, Radford, & Berger, 1981). Larwood et al.'s initial analysis resulted in seven factors: abilities, public appearances, vigilance, sex role, politics, compliance, and education. Due to the large number of tactics in the abilities factor, a secondary analysis was performed on the factor's 22 items which yielded four subfactors: display of effort, sensitivity to others, being competitive, and ability to express ideas. With the exception fo sex role, the factors and subfactors derived from the Larwood et al. study served as the nine career strategies for the present study (Appendix A).

The scenarios for each strategy were based upon the tactics that loaded on that factor (Appendix B). The tactics that loaded on sex role (learning from male models, learning from female models, close contact with female personnel, and

appearing as feminine as possible) did not lend themselves to descriptions which could be adapted for both male and female managers, and thus were excluded from the present investigation.

Procedure. Subjects were presented with scenarios depicting either all male or all female managers in the nine career strategies. To increase the salience of sex of the manager, the name of the managers' superior was included in the descriptions to indicate whether the manager was working under the supervision of a man or a woman. It may be argued that drawing special attention to the gender of the managers may make the results of the present study less generalizable to real work situations. It is, however, the contention of the present author that gender is a very real consideration in personnel decisions. The effects of sex role stereotypes, which are based on an awareness of gender, have been widely demonstrated. For the purposes of the present study, if the manager's sex was not a prominent cue for subjects, they may have attributed the success of a strategy in accordance with a generic model of a manager, which is by tradition masculine. By providing a mixed gender situation, subjects may have become more aware of the implications for a manager's sex on the use of career tactics. Nisbett and Ross (1980) have argued that the simple manipulation of a variable increases its salience. For each subject, the sex of the superior was randomly assigned to the descriptions

with the restriction that the first description included a contrast between the sex of manager and sex of the superior. This ensured that the cue provided to increase the salience of sex (mixed gender) was available at the onset of the experiment.

Each scenario was followed by a set of 14 questions (Appendix C). First, the subjects rated the extent to which ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck affected the manager's success. The subjects then rated the manager on eight specific management abilities: (1) planning, (2) representing, (3) investigating, (4) negotiating, (5) coordinating, (6) evaluating, (7) supervising, and (8) staffing (Mahoney, Jerdee, & Carroll, 1963). Overall management ability could have been interpreted by subjects in one of several ways. First, overall ability may have been perceived as the manager's ability to use the strategy. Second, ability may have been interpreted as the manager's ability to succeed or advance in the organization. Finally, overall ability may have been seen as the manager's ability to perform his or her managerial duties. The ratings of the eight specific abilities were included to help clarify the meaning of overall management ability. In order to examine the perceived success of behaviors consistent or inconsistent with role expectations, subjects were asked to rate the appropriateness and the effectiveness of each manager's behavior.

Results

Ratings of Appropriateness and Effectiveness

A separate 2(sex of manager) by 2(sex of subject) by 9(career strategy) analysis of covariance with repeated measures on career strategy was performed on the subjects' ratings of the appropriateness and the effectiveness of the managers' behavior. The sex of the managers' superior was entered into each analysis as a covariate. For ease of interpretation, the subjects' ratings of appropriateness and effectiveness were recoded so that a rating of five represented very appropriate or very effective behavior and a rating of one represented inappropriate or ineffective behavior. This transformation merely reversed the rating scales that were presented to the subjects. A derivation of the Tukey statistic developed for analysis of covariance was used for post-hoc comparisons of the means (Bryant & Paulson, 1976; Kirk, 1982). Differences between the means were tested at the $p < .01$ level of significance.

The analysis yielded a significant main effect for sex of manager for ratings of appropriateness, $F(1,200)=6.82$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.03$ and effectiveness, $F(1,200)=4.75$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.11$. Post-hoc comparisons of the means showed that subjects rated the behavior of male mangers as more appropriate (Table 1) and more effective (Table 2) than the same behavior exhibited by female managers.

TABLE 1

MAIN EFFECT FOR SEX OF MANAGER
FOR RATINGS OF APPROPRIATENESS

MALE (n=107)	FEMALE (n=98)
3.43	3.26

TABLE 2

MAIN EFFECT FOR SEX OF MANAGER
FOR RATINGS OF EFFECTIVENESS

MALE (n=107)	FEMALE (n=98)
3.58	3.42

A significant main effect for career strategy was revealed for both ratings of appropriateness, $F(8, 1607)=130$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.84$ and effectiveness, $F(8,1607)=92.66$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.05$. The same general pattern was found for both sets of ratings. The strategies of competitiveness, effort, communication, sensitivity, and education received relatively high ratings of appropriateness and effectiveness, while the strategies of compliance, public appearance, politics, and vigilance received relatively lower ratings.

Post-hoc comparisons of the mean ratings for appropriateness (Table 3) revealed that managers using a strategy of effort, communication, sensitivity, or education were rated as more appropriate in their behavior than managers described as using competitiveness, compliance, public appearance, and vigilance. A competitive strategy was rated as more appropriate than a political or vigilant strategy. The strategies of compliance, public appearance, and politics were rated as more appropriate than vigilance. Post-hoc comparisons of the mean ratings for effectiveness (Table 4) revealed that managers employing effort, communication, sensitivity and education strategies were rated as more effective in thier managerial duties than managers using competitiveness, compliance, public appearance, politics, and vigilance. The behavior of managers described as using a competitive strategy were rated as more effective

TABLE 3

MAIN EFFECT FOR CAREER STRATEGY FOR
RATINGS OF APPROPRIATENESS

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
(n=205)	3.25	2.15	1.98	1.86	1.95	3.01	2.66	3.30	4.20

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*	*	*	*			*	*
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE									*
PUBLIC APPEAR								*	*
POLITICS									*
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 4

MAIN EFFECT FOR CAREER STRATEGY FOR
RATINGS OF EFFECTIVENESS

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VICILANCE
(n=205)	3.43	4.21	4.09	4.06	4.08	3.04	3.31	2.95	2.35

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VICILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*	*	*	*	*		*	*
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE									*
PUBLIC APPEAR									*
POLITICS									*
VICILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

than the behavior of managers using compliance, politics, and vigilance. In addition, the strategies of compliance, public appearnace, and politics were rated as more effective than vigilance.

The analysis for ratings of appropriateness also revealed a significant interaction between career strategy and sex of subject, $F(8,1607)=3.09$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.11$ (Figure 1). Post-hoc comparisons of the means (Table 5) revealed that women's ratings for communication were significantly higher than both men and women's ratings for competitiveness and public appearance, whereas men's ratings for communication and education were significantly higher than only women's ratings for competitiveness and public appearance. Other significant differences between the means were inconsistent and difficult to interpret.

A significant interaction between sex of manager and career strategy was found for ratings of effectiveness, $F(8,1607)=2.38$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.05$ (Figure 2). The only consistent pattern revealed by post-hoc comparisons of the means (Table 6) occurred in the ratings for managers employing a competitive strategy. Competitive men were rated as more effective than compliant women, political women, and both vigilant men and women. Competitive women were rated as more effective than political women and both vigilant men and women.

Figure 1

Interaction between sex of subject and career strategy for ratings of appropriateness

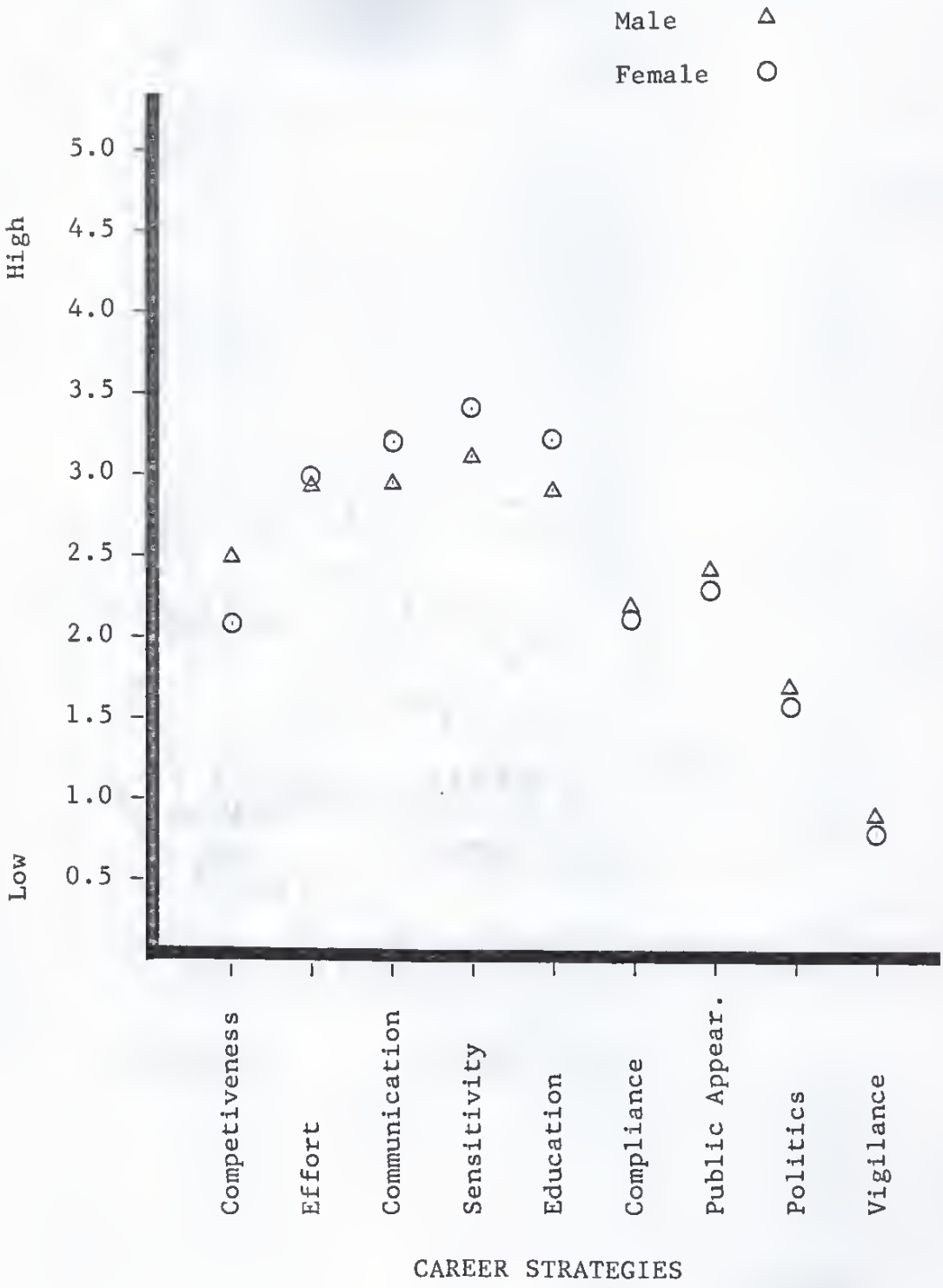

TABLE 5

INTERACTION BETWEEN CAREER STRATEGY AND SEX
OF SUBJECT FOR RATINGS OF APPROPRIATENESS

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
MALE (n=95)	3.44	3.82	3.87	4.05	3.93	2.91	3.39	2.80	1.98
FEMALE (n=110)	3.10	3.88	4.16	4.21	4.17	3.06	3.29	2.61	1.65

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPARISONS FOR RATINGS OF MALE SUBJECTS									
COMPETITIVE				*				*	*
EFFORT						*		*	*
COMMUNICATION						*		*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*		*	*
COMPLIANCE									*
PUBLIC APPEAR								*	*
POLITICS									*
VIGILANCE									
COMPARISONS FOR RATINGS OF FEMALE SUBJECTS									
COMPETITIVE		*	*	*	*				*
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE									*
PUBLIC APPEAR								*	*
POLITICS									*
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 5 (con't)

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS OF MALE AND FEMALE SUBJECTS

MALE / FEMALE	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE			*	*	*			*	*
EFFORT	*					*		*	*
COMMUNICATION	*					*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY	*					*	*	*	*
EDUCATION	*					*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE		*	*	*	*				*
PUBLIC APPEAR			*	*	*			*	*
POLITICS		*	*	*	*				*
VIGILANCE	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

Figure 2

Interaction between sex of manager and career strategy for ratings of effectiveness

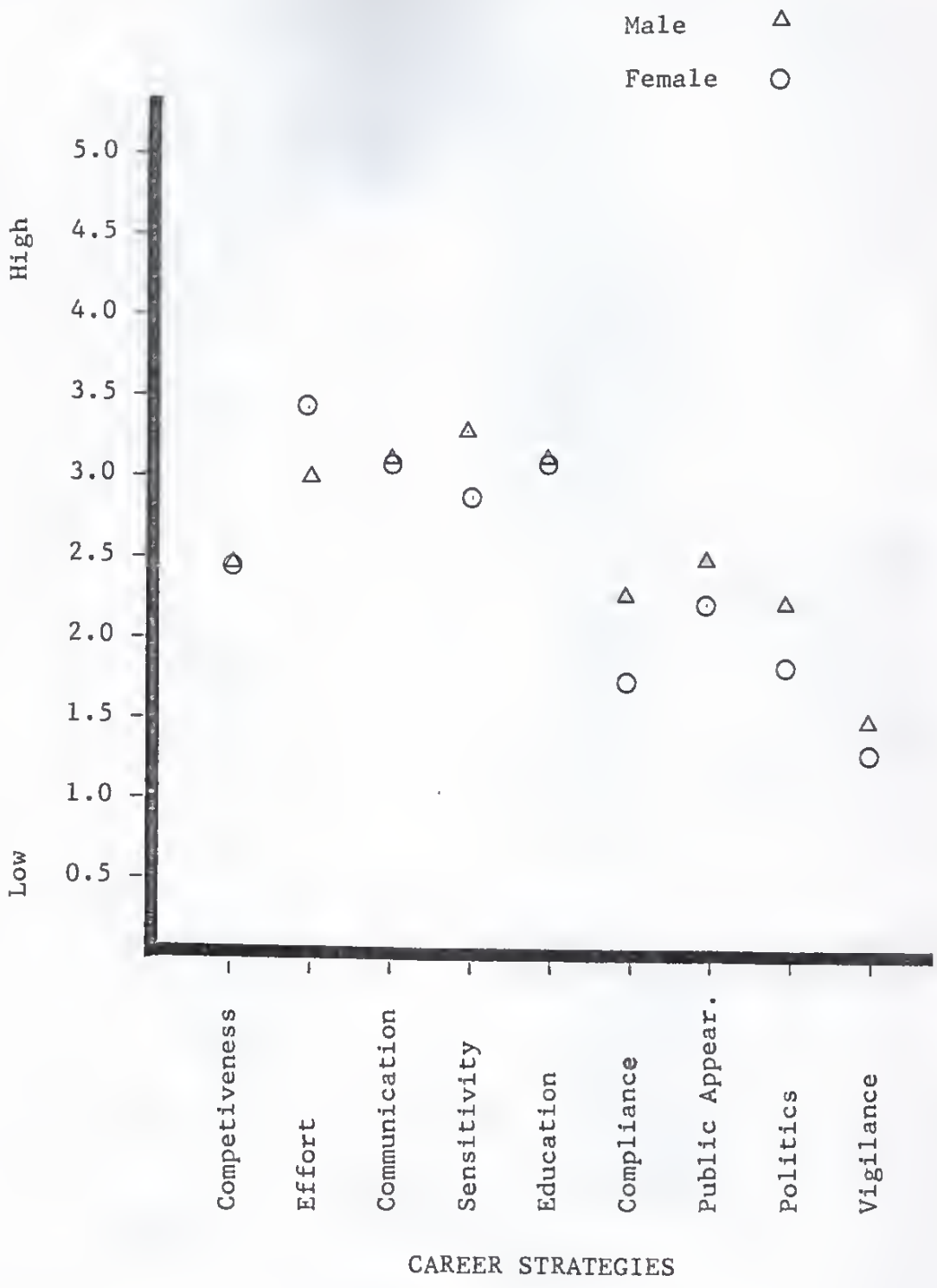

TABLE 6

INTERACTION BETWEEN CAREER STRATEGY AND SEX
OF MANAGER FOR RATINGS OF EFFECTIVENESS

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
MALE (n=107)	3.44	4.08	4.11	4.18	4.11	3.20	3.48	3.14	2.45
FEMALE (n=98)	3.42	4.34	4.08	3.94	4.07	2.87	3.13	2.75	2.24

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS FOR MALE MANAGERS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*	*	*	*				*
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION							*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE									*
PUBLIC APPEAR									*
POLITICS									*
VIGILANCE									

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS FOR FEMALE MANAGERS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*	*		*			*	*
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE									*
PUBLIC APPEAR									*
POLITICS									
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 6 (con't)

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS FOR MALE AND FEMALE MANAGERS

MALE \ FEMALE	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*	*		*	*		*	*
EFFORT	*					*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION	*					*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY	*					*	*	*	*
EDUCATION	*					*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE		*	*	*	*				*
PUBLIC APPEAR		*	*		*	*		*	*
POLITICS		*	*	*	*				*
VIGILANCE	*	*	*	*	*		*		

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

Ratings for Causal Attributions

A 2(sex of subject) by 2 (sex of manager) by 9(career strategy) multivariate analysis of covariance with repeated measures on career strategy and sex of the managers' superior entered as the covariate was performed on the ratings for the causal attribution of luck, effort, task difficulty, and ability. Using the approximate F test associated with Wilk's lambda as the test of significance, the analysis yielded three significant multivariate effects: a main effect for career strategy, $F(32, 5912)=46.79$, $p < .01$; an interaction between career strategy and sex of manager, $F(32,5912)=1.99$, $p < .01$; and an interaction between career strategy and sex of subject, $F(32,5912)=1.71$, $p < .05$. Spector (1977) has argued that when the dependent measures entered into MANOVA are related, the standardized coefficients associated with a discriminant function analysis cannot be interpreted independently of each other, however ANOVAs for each dependent measure will be independent, regardless of the correlations among the dependent measures. The dependent variables in the present analysis were correlated at the $p < .01$ level of significance (Table 7). ANCOVAs on each of the four dependent variables were performed to interpret these overall multivariate effects. Subsequent Tukey comparisons were tested at the $p < .01$ level of significance.

The main effect for career strategy was found to be significant for subjects' attributions of effort, $F(8,1607)=122.21$,

Table 7

Pearson correlation coefficients for attributional ratings

	Effort	Task	Luck	Ability
Effort		.61	-.49	.68
Task			-.44	.55
Luck				-.53
Ability				

* correlations significant at the $p < .01$ level of significance

$p < .01$, $w^2 = .83$; task difficulty, $F(8,1607) = 76.48$, $p < .01$, $w^2 = .75$; luck, $F(8,1607) = 81.43$, $p < .01$, $w^2 = .76$; and ability, $F(8,1607) = 150.19$, $p < .01$, $w^2 = .85$. The same general pattern was revealed for each of the four attributional ratings. Managers employing the strategies of competitiveness, effort, communication, sensitivity, and education received high ratings of effort, task difficulty, and ability and low ratings of luck. Managers employing the strategies of compliance, public appearance, politics, and vigilance received relatively lower ratings of effort, task difficulty, and ability and higher ratings of luck.

Post-hoc comparisons of the means for ratings of effort (Table 8) revealed that managers employing an effort strategy were rated as putting significantly more effort into their managerial tasks than managers using any other career strategy. Managers described as using competitiveness, communication, or education strategies were rated as exhibiting significantly more effort than managers using compliance, public appearance, politics, and vigilance. Compliance and sensitivity strategies were rated significantly higher (more effort) than public appearance, politics, and vigilance. Managers using politics received significantly higher ratings of effort than managers using public appearance and vigilance.

Post-hoc comparisons of the means for ratings of task difficulty (Table 9) showed that a career strategy based upon

TABLE 8

MAIN EFFECT FOR CAREER STRATEGY FOR ATTRIBUTIONS OF EFFORT

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
(n=205)	4.31	4.8E	4.40	4.15	4.43	3.91	2.96	3.3E	2.91

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*				*	*	*	*
EFFORT			*	*	*	*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY							*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE							*	*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR								*	
POLITICS									*
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 9

MAIN EFFECT FOR CAREER STRATEGY FOR
ATTRIBUTIONS OF TASK DIFFICULTY

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
(n=205)	3.61	4.22	3.72	3.56	3.68	3.32	2.82	2.99	2.87

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*							
EFFORT			*	*	*	*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION							*	*	*
COMPLIANCE						*	*	*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR							*	*	*
POLITICS									
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

effort was rated as more difficult than any other career strategy. The career strategies of competitiveness, communication, and education were rated as significantly more difficult than the strategies of compliance, public appearance, politics, and vigilance. Strategies of sensitivity and compliance were rated as more difficult than public appearance, politics, and vigilance.

Post-hoc comparisons of the means for ratings of luck (table 10) indicated that luck was rated as playing a significantly greater role in the success of managers employing a vigilant strategy than all other strategies, except politics which was not rated significantly different form vigilance. Luck was rated as playing a significantly greater role in the success of managers using politics, public appearance, and compliance than managers using effort, communication, sensitivity, or education. In addition, success with a political strategy was attributed significantly more to luck than success with competitive or compliant strategies. Luck was also rated as having a significantly greater influence in the success of managers employing public appearance than managers using competitiveness. Subjects rated luck as playing a significantly greater role in the success of managers using competitiveness or sensitivity than the success of managers using effort or education. Luck was rated as playing a significantly greater role in the success of managers using communication than managers using education.

TABLE 10

MAIN EFFECT FOR CAREER STRATEGY FOR ATTRIBUTIONS OF LUCK

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
(n=205)	2.09	1.60	1.91	1.95	1.45	2.39	2.72	2.96	3.10

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*			*		*	*	*
EFFORT				*		*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION					*	*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY					*	*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE								*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR									*
POLITICS									
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

Post-hoc comparisons of the means for ratings of ability (Table 11) revealed that managers employing career tactics of competitiveness, effort, communication, sensitivity, and education were rated as having significantly more overall management ability than managers using compliance, public appearance, politics, and vigilance. Managers using an effort strategy were also rated as having significantly more ability than those using competitiveness. The strategies of compliance, public appearance, and politics were associated with significantly higher ratings of ability than a vigilant strategy.

The univariate analyses revealed significant interactions between career strategy and sex of manager for ratings of effort, $F(8,1607)=2.10$, $p < .05$, $w^2=.04$ (Figure 3); luck, $F(8,1607)=2.99$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.04$ (Figure 4); and ability, $F(8,1607)=3.99$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.10$ (Figure 5). The only consistent pattern of ratings revealed from the examination of the means associated with each of these interactions occurred in the ratings for managers using a compliant strategy. Post-hoc comparisons of the mean ratings of ability (Table 14) indicated that male managers employing a strategy of compliance were rated as demonstrating significantly more overall management ability than their female counterparts. Although post-hoc comparisons of the means for ratings of effort (Table 12) and luck (Table 13) did not reveal a significant difference between the ratings of compliant male and female managers, compliant male managers

Figure 3

Interaction between sex of manager and career stratgy for ratings of effort

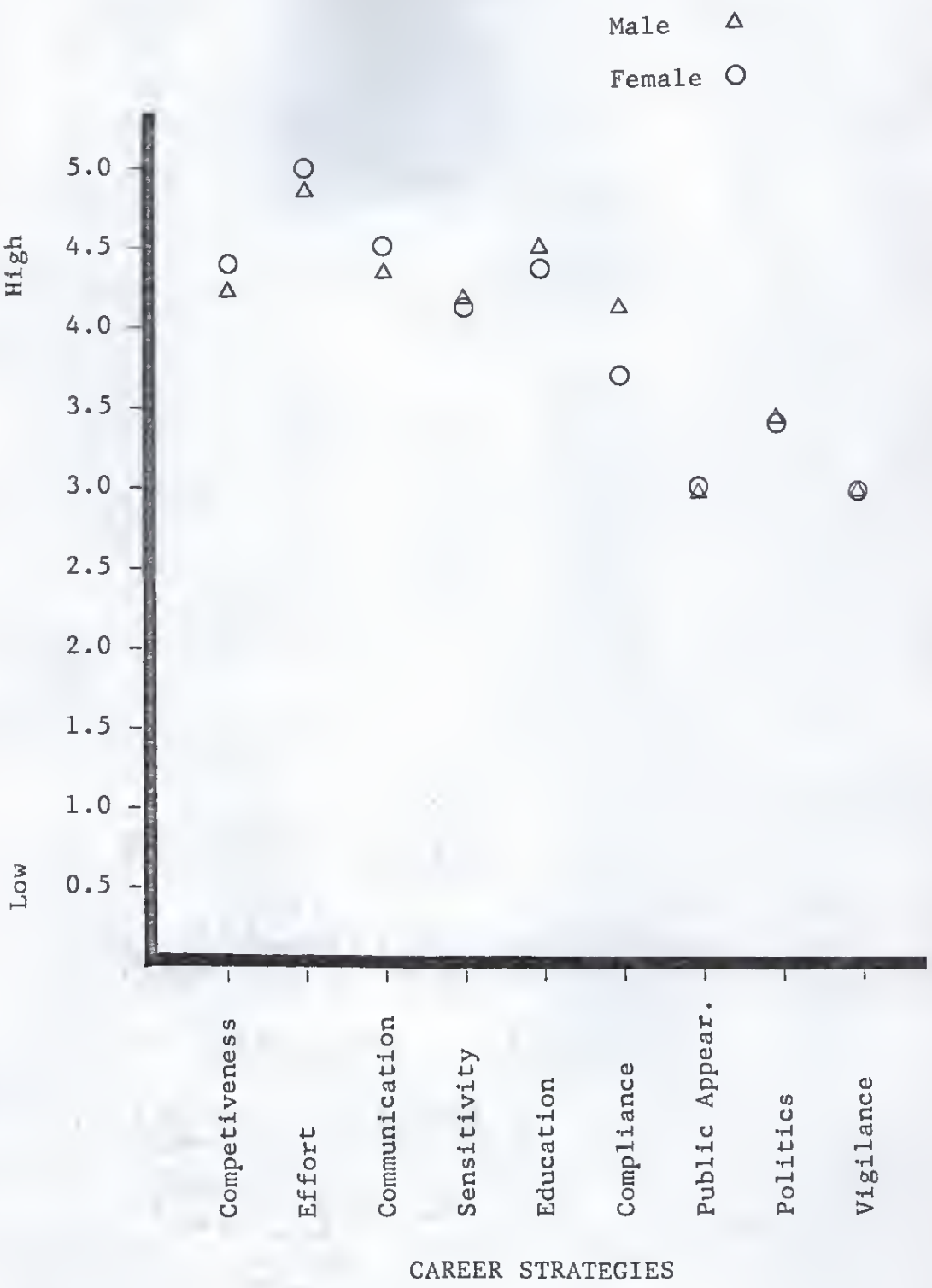

Figure 4

Interaction between sex of manager and career strategy for ratings of luck

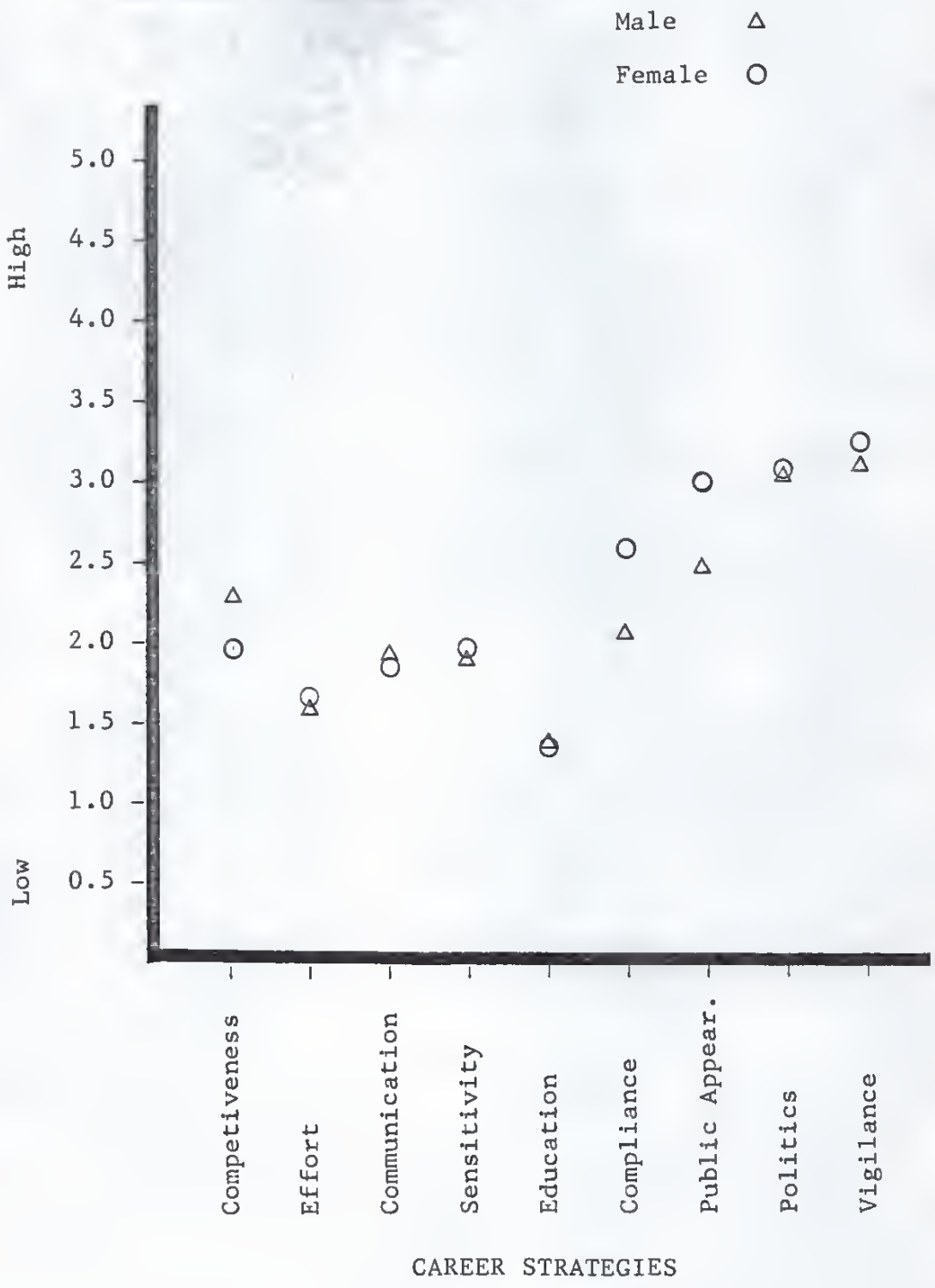

Figure 5

Interaction between sex of manager and
career strategy for ratings of overall management ability

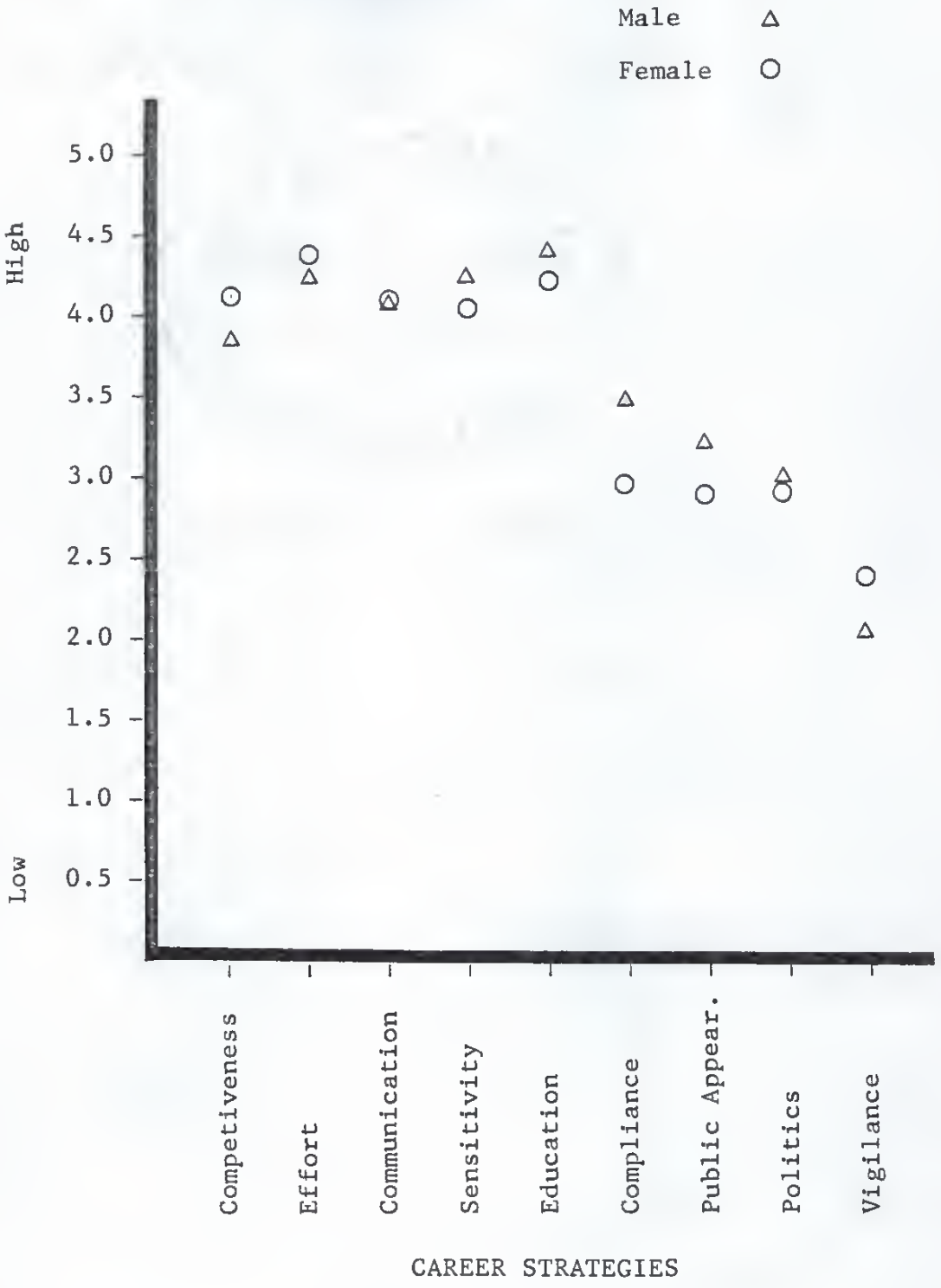

TABLE 11

MAIN EFFECT FOR CAREER STRATEGY FOR
ATTRIBUTIONS OF OVERALL ABILITY

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
(n=205)	3.96	4.29	4.06	4.13	4.26	3.18	3.01	2.87	2.29

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*							
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE									*
PUBLIC APPEAR									*
POLITICS									*
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 12

INTERACTION BETWEEN CAREER STRATEGY AND SEX
OF MANAGER FOR ATTRIBUTIONS OF EFFORT

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
MALE (n=107)	4.25	4.83	4.35	4.19	4.51	4.13	2.95	3.43	2.91
FEMALE (n=98)	4.38	4.93	4.45	4.10	4.34	3.66	2.96	3.34	2.92

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS FOR MALE MANAGERS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*							
EFFORT			*			*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION							*	*	*
SENSITIVITY							*	*	*
EDUCATION							*	*	*
COMPLIANCE							*	*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR									
POLITICS									
VIGILANCE									

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS FOR FEMALE MANAGERS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*							
EFFORT			*	*	*	*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION					*	*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY					*	*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE							*	*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR									
POLITICS									
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 12 (con't)

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS FOR MALE AND FEMALE MANAGERS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*				*	*	*	*
EFFORT				*	*	*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION		*				*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY		*				*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE		*					*	*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR	*	*	*	*	*	*			
POLITICS	*	*	*	*	*				
VIGILANCE	*	*	*	*	*				

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 13

INTERACTION BETWEEN CAREER STRATEGY AND SEX
OF MANAGER FOR ATTRIBUTIONS OF LUCK

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
MALE (n=107)	2.23	1.56	1.97	1.88	1.47	2.17	2.55	2.94	3.06
FEMALE (n=98)	1.95	1.64	1.85	2.02	1.44	2.63	2.89	2.98	3.14

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS FOR MALE MANAGERS									
COMPETITIVE		*			*			*	*
EFFORT							*	*	*
COMMUNICATION							*	*	*
SENSITIVITY							*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE								*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR									
POLITICS									
VIGILANCE									
COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS FOR FEMALE MANAGERS									
COMPETITIVE						*	*	*	*
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY					*	*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE									
PUBLIC APPEAR									
POLITICS									
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 13 (con't)

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS FOR MALE AND FEMALE MANAGERS

MALE \ FEMALE	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*			*		*	*	*
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION				*		*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE					*		*	*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR	*	*	*		*				*
POLITICS	*	*	*	*	*				
VIGILANCE	*	*	*	*	*				

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 14

INTERACTION BETWEEN CAREER STRATEGY AND SEX
OF MANAGER FOR ATTRIBUTIONS OF OVERALL ABILITY

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
MALE (n=107)	3.86	4.24	4.05	4.20	4.34	3.44	3.14	2.91	2.19
FEMALE (n=98)	4.06	4.34	4.06	4.05	4.18	2.89	2.87	2.82	2.38

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS FOR MALE MANAGERS									
COMPETITIVE							*	*	*
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE								*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR									*
POLITICS									*
VIGILANCE									
COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS FOR FEMALE MANAGERS									
COMPETITIVE						*	*	*	*
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE									*
PUBLIC APPEAR									
POLITICS									
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 14 (con't)

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS FOR MALE AND FEMALE MANAGERS

MALE / FEMALE	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VICILANCE
COMPETITIVE						*	*	*	*
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR	*	*	*	*	*				
POLITICS	*	*	*	*	*				*
VICILANCE	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

did receive higher ratings of effort and lower ratings of luck than compliant female managers. Other significant differences between the means were both inconsistent and difficult to interpret.

Univariate analyses of the attributional ratings also yielded a significant interaction between career strategy and sex of subject for ratings of effort, $F(8,1607)=2.71$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.04$ (Figure 6) and ability, $F(8,1607)=2.71$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.04$ (Figure 7). Post-hoc comparisons of the means for ratings of effort (Table 15) and ability (Table 16) did not reveal any meaningful pattern of responses.

Ratings of Specific Abilities

A 2(sex of subject) by 2(sex of manager) by 9(career strategy) multivariate analysis of covariance with repeated measures on career strategy was performed on the ratings of specific management abilities including the ability to plan, represent, investigate, negotiate, coordinate, evaluate, supervise, and staff. Sex of the managers' superior served as the covariate. The approxiamte F test associated with Wilk's lambda was used as the test of significance. The analysis revealed three significant multivariate effects: a main effect for career strategy, $F(32,5917)=32.0$, $p < .01$; a main effect for sex of subject, $F(32,5917)=2.26$, $p < .05$; and an interaction between sex of subject and career strategy, $F(32,5917)=1.33$, $p < .05$. The dependent variables were significantly correlated

Figure 6

Interaction between sex of subject and career strategy for ratings of effort

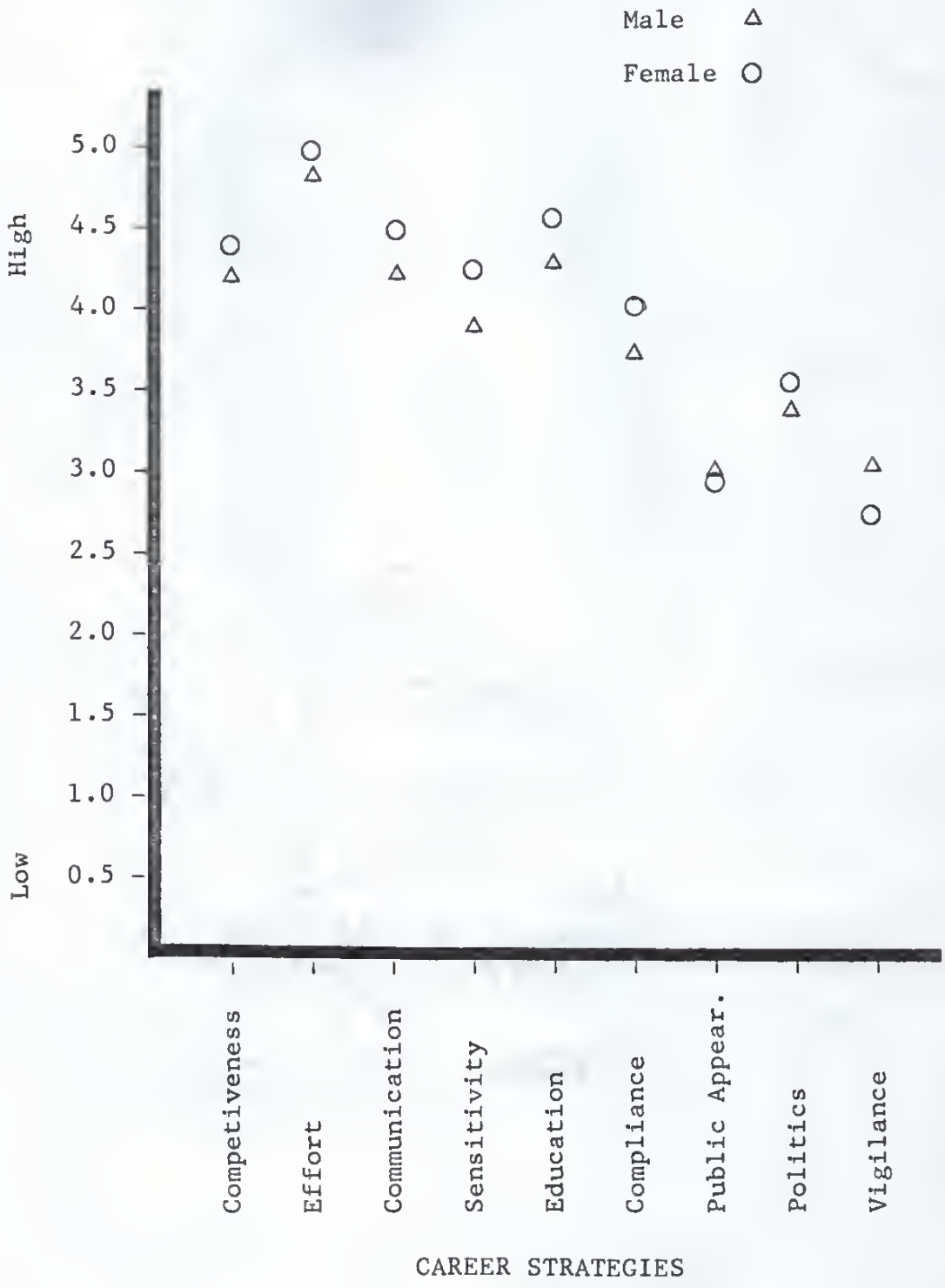

Figure 7

Interaction between sex of subject and
career strategy for ratings of overall management ability

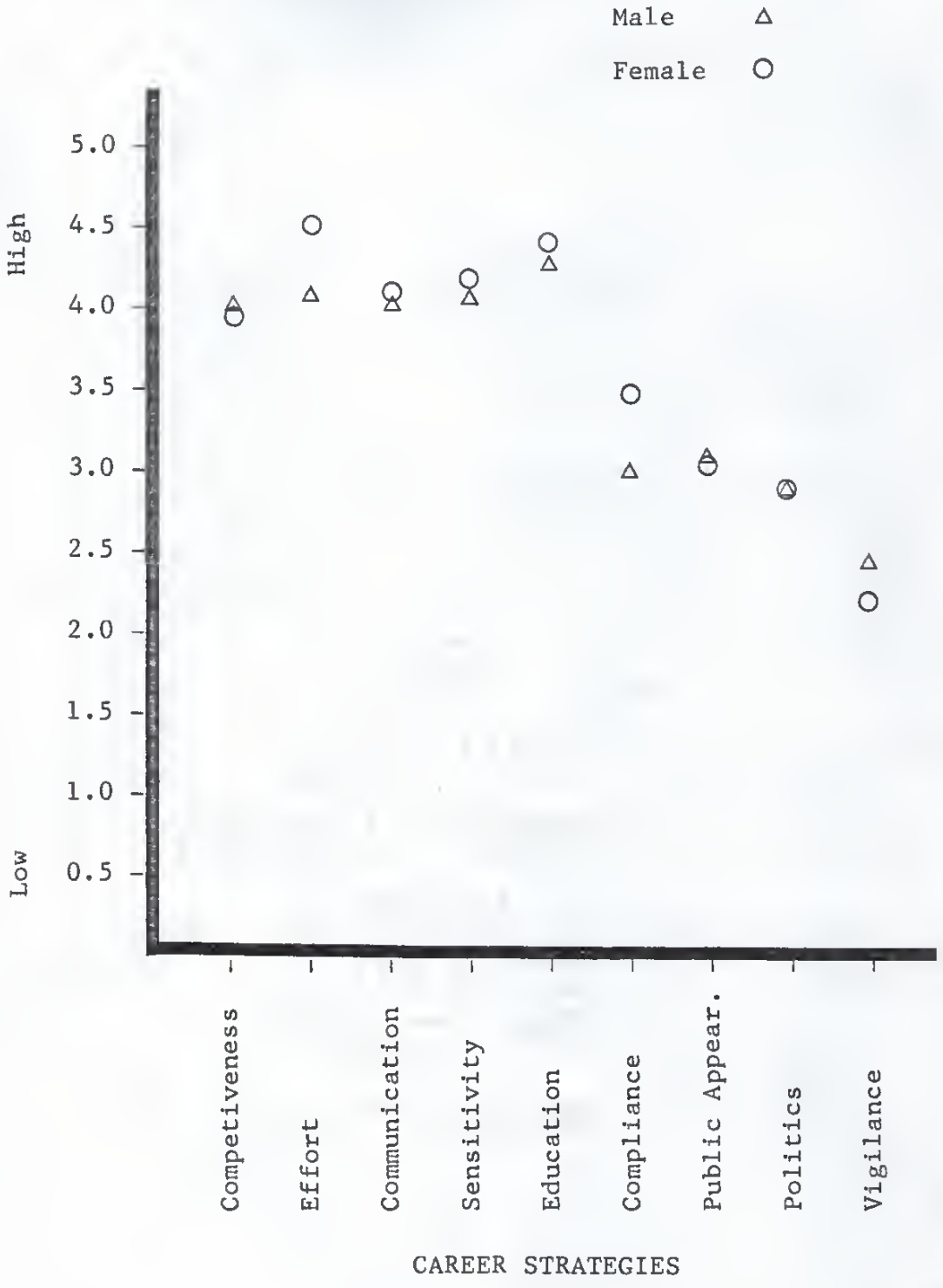

TABLE 15

INTERACTION BETWEEN CAREER STRATEGY AND SEX
OF SUBJECT FOR ATTRIBUTIONS OF EFFORT

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
MALE (n=95)	4.24	4.81	4.32	3.93	4.34	3.71	3.01	3.27	3.05
FEMALE (n=110)	4.37	4.93	4.46	4.33	4.51	4.07	2.90	3.47	2.97

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS OF MALE SUBJECTS									
COMPETITIVE						*	*	*	*
EFFORT				*		*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY							*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE							*		*
PUBLIC APPEAR									
POLITICS									
VIGILANCE									
COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS OF FEMALE SUBJECTS									
COMPETITIVE		*					*	*	*
EFFORT				*		*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION							*	*	*
SENSITIVITY							*	*	*
EDUCATION							*	*	*
COMPLIANCE							*	*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR								*	
POLITICS									*
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 15(con't)

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS OF MALE AND FEMALE SUBJECTS

MALE \ FEMALE	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*					*	*	*
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION		*					*	*	*
SENSITIVITY		*	*		*		*		*
EDUCATION		*					*	*	*
COMPLIANCE	*	*	*	*	*		*		*
PUBLIC APPEAR	*	*	*	*	*	*			
POLITICS	*	*	*	*	*	*			
VIGILANCE	*	*	*	*	*	*			

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 16

INTERACTION BETWEEN CAREER STRATEGY AND SEX
OF SUBJECT FOR ATTRIBUTIONS OF OVERALL ABILITY

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
MALE (n=95)	4.01	4.09	4.02	4.09	4.21	2.97	3.04	2.87	2.39
FEMALE (n=110)	3.91	4.46	4.09	4.16	4.31	3.36	2.99	2.86	2.20

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VICILANCE
COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS OF MALE SUBJECTS									
COMPETITIVE						*	*	*	*
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE									*
PUBLIC APPEAR									*
POLITICS									
VIGILANCE									
COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS OF FEMALE SUBJECTS									
COMPETITIVE		*				*	*	*	*
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE								*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR									*
POLITICS									
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 16 (con't)

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS OF MALE AND FEMALE SUBJECTS

MALE / FEMALE	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VICILANCE
COMPETITIVE	•					*	*	*	*
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE	*	*	*	*	*				*
PUBLIC APPEAR	*	*	*	*	*				*
POLITICS	*	*	*	*	*				*
VICILANCE	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

at the $p < .05$ level of significance (Table 17). ANCOVAs on each of the eight dependent measures were performed to interpret these multivariate effects. Subsequent Tukey comparisons on significant univariate effects were tested at the $p < .01$ level of significance.

The main effect for career strategy was found to be significant for subjects' ratings of planning, $F(8,1607)=97.28$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.79$; representing, $F(8,1607)=85.28$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.77$; investigating, $F(8,1607)=102.12$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.80$; negotiating, $F(8,1607)=67.01$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.73$; coordinating, $F(8,1607)=87.67$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.77$, evaluating, $F(8,1607)=91.21$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.78$; supervising, $F(8,1607)=94.12$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.78$; and staffing ability, $F(8,1607)=79.49$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.75$. Managers employing the strategies of competitiveness, effort, communication, sensitivity, and education generally received high ratings on each of the eight specific management abilities. On the other hand, the strategies of compliance, public appearance, politics, and vigilance received relatively lower ratings.

Post-hoc comparisons of the mean ratings for planning ability (Table 18) indicated that subjects rated managers using tactics of effort, communication, and education as having significantly more ability to plan and determine goals and policies than managers using sensitivity, compliance, public appearance, politics, and vigilance. A competitive or sensitivity strategy was rated as domonstrating more planning

Table 17

Pearson correlation coefficients for ratings of specific management abilities

	Plan	Rep	Invest	Neg	Coor	Eval	Sup	Staf
Plan		.57	.65	.57	.52	.51	.61	.54
Rep			.54	.58	.57	.52	.55	.56
Invest				.67	.48	.48	.51	.47
Neg					.51	.46	.51	.54
Coor						.63	.60	.60
Eval							.71	.69
Sup								.77
Staf								

* correlations significant at the $p < .05$ level of significance

TABLE 18

MAIN EFFECT FOR CAREER STRATEGY FOR
RATINGS OF PLANNING ABILITY

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
(n=205)	4.02	4.13	4.35	3.76	4.23	3.36	3.21	2.82	2.69

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE									
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION				*		*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY				*		*	*	*	*
EDUCATION					*	*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE						*	*	*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR								*	*
POLITICS								*	*
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

ability than compliance, public appearance, politics, and vigilance. Managers employing compliance or public appearance received higher ratings of planning ability than managers using politics and vigilance.

Post-hoc comparisons of the mean ratings for representing ability (Table 19) indicated that managers described as using a communication strategy were rated as having significantly more abilitiy to represent the interests of the company than managers who were described as using strategies of competitiveness, effort, education, compliance, politics, and vigilance. The strategies of competitiveness, effort, sensitivity, public appearance, and education were given higher ratings of ability to represent than the strategies of compliance, politics, and vigilance. Managers employing compliance and politics received significantly higher ratings of ability than managers using a vigilant strategy

Post-hoc comparisons of the mean ratings of investigating ability (Table 20) indicated that subjects rated managers who were described as using a career strategy of effort as having significantly more ability to collect and prepare information for records and reports than managers using any other strategy except education, which was not significantly different from effort. Managers employing strategies of effort or education were rated as having significantly more investigating ability than managers using competitiveness, sensitivity, compliance,

TABLE I9

MAIN EFFECT FOR CAREER STRATEGY FOR
RATINGS OF REPRESENTING ABILITY

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
(n=205)	3.66	3.94	4.30	3.99	3.8I	3.25	3.96	3.II	2.30

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE			*			*		*	*
EFFORT			*			*		*	*
COMMUNICATION						*		*	*
SENSITIVITY						*		*	*
EDUCATION						*		*	*
COMPLIANCE							*		*
PUBLIC APPEAR								*	*
POLITICS									*
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 20

MAIN EFFECT FOR CAREER STRATEGY FOR
RATINGS OF INVESTIGATING ABILITY

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
(n=205)	3.81	4.16	4.50	3.61	4.39	3.62	3.12	3.08	2.85

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*	*		*		*	*	*
EFFORT			*	*		*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION				*		*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY					*		*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE							*	*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR								*	*
POLITICS									*
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

public appearance, politics, and vigilance. Competitiveness and compliance received significantly higher ratings of investigating ability than public appearance, politics, and vigilance.

Post-hoc comparisons of the mean ratings of negotiating ability (Table 21) showed that managers using competitiveness, effort, communication, or education were rated as possessing significantly more ability to purchase and sell products for the company than managers using compliance, public appearance, politics, and vigilance. In addition, the strategies of effort and education were rated as evidence of significantly more negotiating ability than sensitivity. Communication received significantly higher ratings of ability than competitiveness. Managers using sensitivity were rated as having significantly more negotiating ability than managers using compliance, politics, and vigliance. Managers using public appearance received higher ratings of ability than managers employing the strategies of politics and vigliance.

Post-hoc comparisons of the mean ratings of coordinating ability (Table 22) indicated that managers using a sensitivity strategy were rated as having significantly more ability to coordinate and exchange information with other managers in the company than managers using any other tactic except communication, which was not significantly different from sensitivity. Managers using strategies of effort, communication, or educa-

TABLE 21

MAIN EFFECT FOR CAREER STRATEGY FOR
RATINGS OF NEGOTIATING ABILITY

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
(n=205)	3.72	3.94	4.14	3.56	3.95	3.05	3.30	2.97	2.84

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE			*			*	*	*	*
EFFORT				*		*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY					*	*		*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE								*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR									
POLITICS									*
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 22

MAIN EFFECT FOR CAREER STRATEGY FOR
RATINGS OF COORDINATING ABILITY

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
(n=205)	3.48	3.94	4.29	4.37	3.93	3.18	3.47	3.05	2.31

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*	*	*	*			*	*
EFFORT				*		*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE									*
PUBLIC APPEAR									*
POLITICS									*
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

tion were rated as having significantly more coordinating ability than managers using compliance, public appearance, politics, vigilance, and competitiveness. A competitive strategy received higher ratings of coordinating ability than politics and vigilance. Managers employing compliance, public appearance, or politics were rated as having significantly more coordinating ability than managers using vigilance.

Post-hoc comparisons of the means of evaluating ability (Table 23) showed that managers using sensitivity were rated as having significantly more ability than managers using any other tactic. Subjects rated managers using strategies of effort, communication, or education as having significantly more ability to evaluate the work performance of employees than managers using strategies of competitiveness, compliance, public appearance, politics, and vigilance. Managers using competitiveness, compliance, and public appearance received higher ratings of ability to evaluate than managers using politics and vigilance. A political strategy was rated as evidence of significantly more ability than vigilance.

Post-hoc comparisons of the means of supervising ability (Table 24) indicated that subjects rated managers who were described as using competitiveness, effort, communication, education, and sensitivity as possessing significantly more ability to supervise, direct, and lead employees than managers using compliance, public appearance, politics, and vigilance. Sensitivity was also rated as evidence of significantly more

TABLE 23

MAIN EFFECT FOR CAREER STRATEGY FOR
RATINGS OF EVALUATING ABILITY

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
(n=205)	3.25	3.64	3.61	4.28	3.83	3.21	3/20	2.79	2.23

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*	*	*	*			*	*
EFFORT				*		*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION				*		*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY					*	*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE								*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR								*	*
POLITICS									*
VICILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 24

MAIN EFFECT FOR CAREER STRATEGY FOR
RATINGS OF SUPERVISING ABILITY

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
(n=205)	3.88	3.84	3.78	4.19	3.90	3.19	3.20	2.52	2.25

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE						*	*	*	*
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION				*		*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE								*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR								*	*
POLITICS									
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

supervising ability than communication. Managers using compliance or public appearance received significantly higher ratings of supervising ability than managers using politics and vigilance.

Post-hoc comparisons of the means of staffing ability (Table 25) showed that managers using sensitivity were rated as having significantly more ability to recruit, hire, promote, and transfer employees than managers using any other tactic. Managers using strategies of competitiveness, effort, communication, or education were rated as having significantly more staffing ability than managers using compliance, politics, and vigilance. Communication also received significantly higher ratings than public appearance. Subjects rated managers using compliance, public appearance, or politics as having significantly more staffing ability than managers using vigilance. Public appearance also received higher ratings than politics.

Univariate analyses also revealed a significant main effect for sex of subject for ratings of planning, $F(1,200)=6.06$, $p < .05$, $w^2=.02$ (Table 26); negotiating, $F(1,200)=5.91$, $p < .05$, $w^2=.02$ (Table 27); supervising, $F(1,200)=5.55$, $p < .05$, $w^2=.02$ (Table 28); and staffing ability, $F(1,200)=5.16$, $p < .05$, $w^2=.02$ (Table 29). Female subjects rated the managers as having significantly higher abilities in these areas than did male subjects. Finally, the analyses yielded significant interactions between career strategy and sex of subjects for the ratings of planning, $F(8,1607)=1.94$, $p < .05$, $w^2=.04$ (Figure 8);

negotiating, $F(8,1607)=3.52$, $p < .01$, $w^2=.07$ (Figure 9); and evaluating ability (Figure 10). Post-hoc comparisons of the means for ratings of planning (Table 30), negotiating (Table 31), and evaluating ability (Table 32) revealed no consistent differences or meaningful patterns in the ratings of these abilities.

TABLE 25

MAIN EFFECT FOR CAREER STRATEGY FOR
RATINGS OF STAFFING ABILITY

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
(n=205)	3.52	3.63	3.73	4.16	3.60	3.02	3.33	2.71	2.36

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE				*		*		*	*
EFFORT				*		*		*	*
COMMUNICATION				*		*		*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION					*	*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE						*		*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR									*
POLITICS								*	*
VIGILANCE									*

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 26

MAIN EFFECT FOR SEX OF SUBJECT FOR RATINGS OF PLANNING ABILITY

MALE (n=95)	FEMALE (n=110)
3.54	4.15

TABLE 27

MAIN EFFECT FOR SEX OF SUBJECT FOR RATINGS OF NEGOTIATING ABILITY

MALE (n=95)	FEMALE (n=110)
3.41	4.01

TABLE 28

MAIN EFFECT FOR SEX OF SUBJECT FOR RATINGS OF SUPERVISING ABILITY

MALE (n=95)	FEMALE (n=110)
3.33	3.92

TABLE 29

MAIN EFFECT FOR SEX OF SUBJECT FOR RATINGS OF STAFFING ABILITY

MALE (n=95)	FEMALE (n=110)
3.22	3.83

Figure 8

Interaction between sex of subject and career strategy for ratings of planning ability

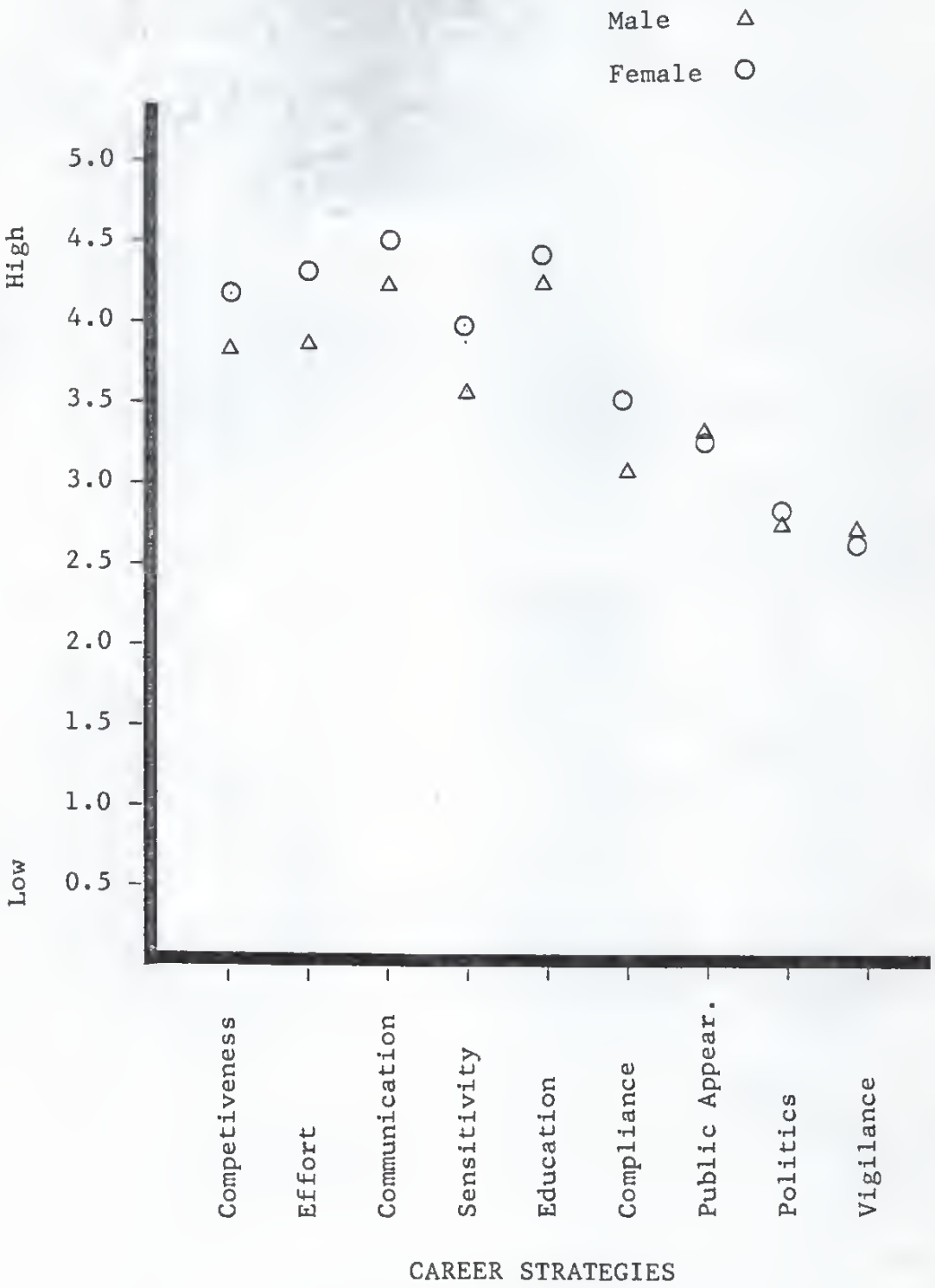

Figure 9

Interaction between sex of subject and career strategy for ratings of negotiating ability

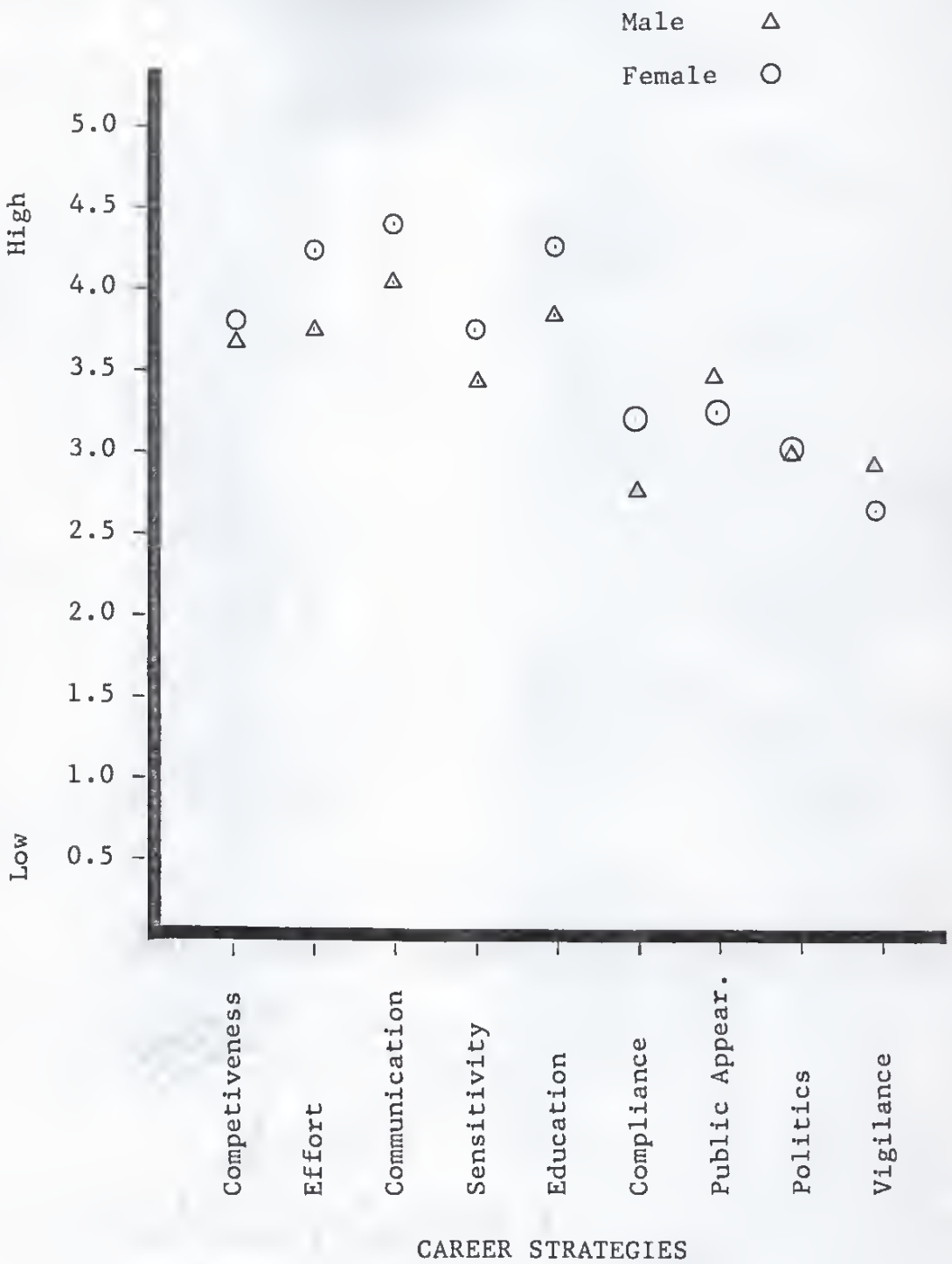

Figure 10

Interaction between sex of subject and career strategy for ratings of evaluating ability

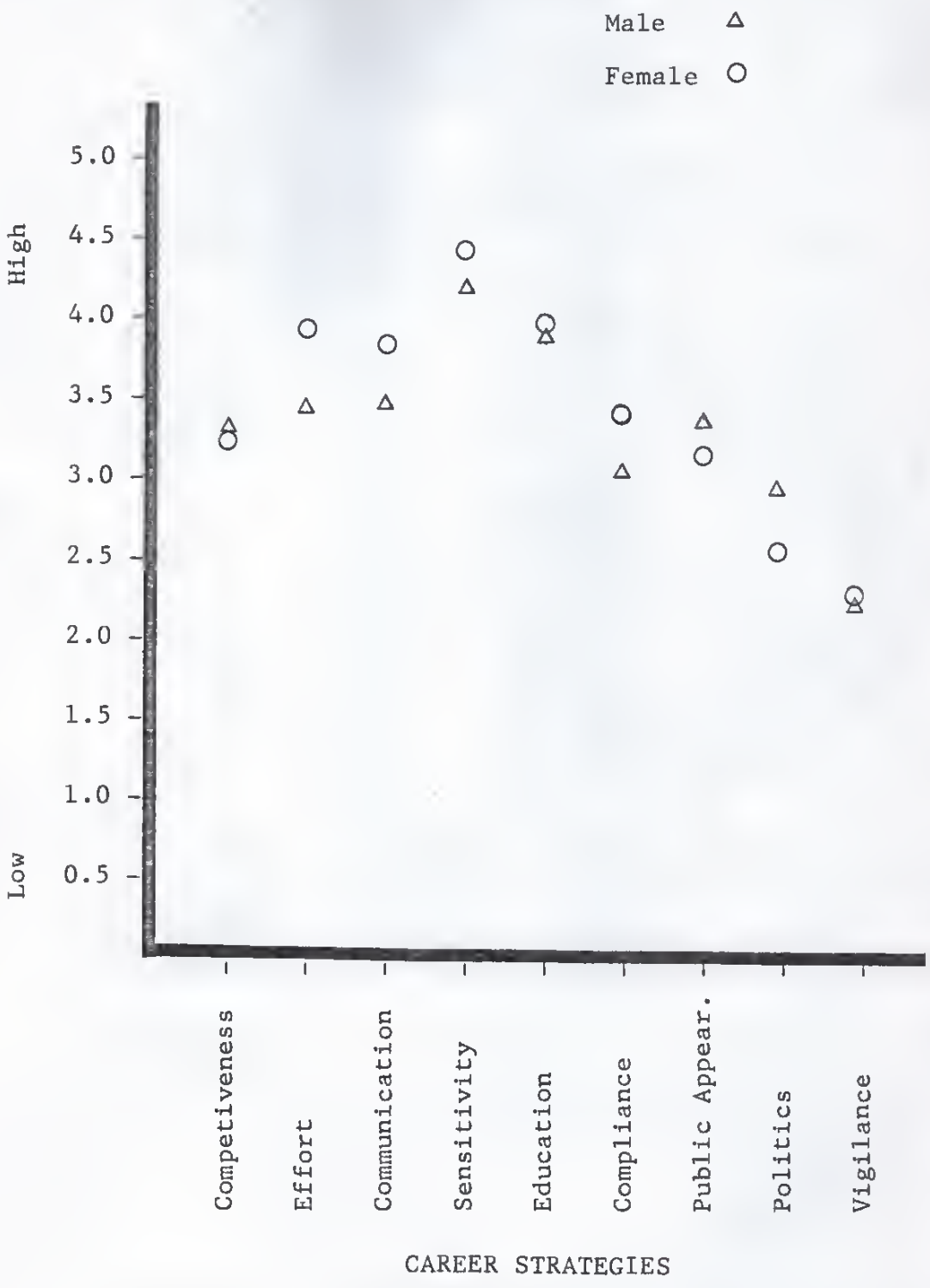

TABLE 30

INTERACTION BETWEEN CAREER STRATEGY AND SEX
OF SUBJECT FOR RATINGS OF PLANNING ABILITY

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VICILANCE
MALE (n=95)	3.E8	3.99	4.22	3.59	4.2O	3.17	3.25	2.79	2.78
FEMALE (n=IIO)	4.I3	4.24	4.46	3.9I	4.33	3.5E	3.1E	2.85	2.61

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS OF MALE SUBJECTS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE						*	*	*	*
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION				*		*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY					*		*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE									
PUBLIC APPEAR									
POLITICS									
VIGILANCE									

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS OF FEMALE SUBJECTS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE						*	*	*	*
EFFORT						*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION				*		*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY							*	*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE								*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR									*
POLITICS									
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SICNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 30 (con't)

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS OF MALE AND FEMALE SUBJECTS

MALE / FEMALE	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE			*				*	*	*
EFFORT							*	*	*
COMMUNICATION						*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY	*	*	*		*			*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE	*	*	*	*	*				*
PUBLIC APPEAR	*	*	*	*	*				
POLITICS	*	*	*	*	*	*			
VIGILANCE	*	*	*	*	*	*			

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 31

INTERACTION BETWEEN CAREER STRATEGY AND SEX
OF SUBJECT FOR RATINGS OF NEGOTIATING ABILITY

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
MALE (n=95)	3.67	3.68	3.98	3.45	3.74	2.91	3.39	2.96	2.91
FEMALE (n=110)	3.75	4.15	4.28	3.66	4.12	3.16	3.23	2.99	2.78

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS OF MALE SUBJECTS									
COMPETITIVE						*			
EFFORT						*		*	*
COMMUNICATION				*		*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*		*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE									
PUBLIC APPEAR									
POLITICS									*
VIGILANCE									
COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS OF FEMALE SUBJECTS									
COMPETITIVE		*							
EFFORT			*			*	*	*	*
COMMUNICATION				*		*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY						*	*	*	*
EDUCATION						*		*	*
COMPLIANCE							*	*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR									
POLITICS									
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 31 (con't)

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS OF MALE AND FEMALE SUBJECTS

MALE \ FEMALE	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*	*			*		*	*
EFFORT						*		*	*
COMMUNICATION		*	*		*	*	*	*	*
SENSITIVITY			*						*
EDUCATION			*			*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE	*	*	*	*	*				
PUBLIC APPEAR		*	*		*				*
POLITICS	*	*	*	*	*				
VIGILANCE	*	*	*	*	*				

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 32

INTERACTION BETWEEN CAREER STRATEGY AND SEX
OF SUBJECT FOR RATINGS OF EVALUATING ABILITY

MEAN RATINGS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
MALE (n=95)	3.27	3.46	3.48	4.20	3.81	3.07	3.29	2.98	2.21
FEMALE (n=110)	3.22	3.80	3.71	4.35	3.84	3.32	3.14	2.62	2.25

POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF THE MEANS

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS OF MALE SUBJECTS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE				*	*				*
EFFORT				*					*
COMMUNICATION				*					*
SENSITIVITY								*	*
EDUCATION						*	*	*	*
COMPLIANCE						*		*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR									*
POLITICS									*
VIGILANCE									*

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS OF FEMALE SUBJECTS

	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*	*	*				*	*
EFFORT			*					*	*
COMMUNICATION							*	*	*
SENSITIVITY							*	*	*
EDUCATION					*		*	*	*
COMPLIANCE							*	*	*
PUBLIC APPEAR								*	*
POLITICS									*
VIGILANCE									

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

TABLE 32 (con't)

COMPARISONS BETWEEN RATINGS OF MALE AND FEMALE SUBJECTS

MALE / FEMALE	COMPETITIVE	EFFORT	COMMUNICATION	SENSITIVITY	EDUCATION	COMPLIANCE	PUBLIC APPEAR	POLITICS	VIGILANCE
COMPETITIVE		*		*	*			*	*
EFFORT				*				*	*
COMMUNICATION	*			*				*	*
SENSITIVITY	*					*	*	*	*
EDUCATION	*			*			*	*	*
COMPLIANCE		*	*	*	*				*
PUBLIC APPEAR				*	*			*	*
POLITICS		*	*	*	*				*
VIGILANCE	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		

* DENOTE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE MEANS

Discussion

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the hypothesis that perceptions of successful managers are influenced by the mode or style of behavior the managers employ to achieve success. Clearest support for this hypothesis can be drawn from the consistent differences found between the ratings for the nine career strategies. Not only was the main effect for career strategy found to be significant within each analysis, but the omega-squared values associated with each of these effects were relatively large. For the dependent measure of effectiveness, all strategies with the exception of vigilance were perceived as being at least moderately effective behaviors for the managers. Vigilance was rated as an ineffective strategy despite the fact that all managers were described as "successful." These ratings are consistent with Larwood, Radford, and Berger's (1980) finding that managers rated all the career strategy factors except vigilance as advantageous to their career success.

Among the eight strategies viewed as effective in the present study and as advantageous to success in the Larwood et al. (1980) study, some strategies were consistently rated as more effective than others. While managers using strategies of effort, communication, sensitivity, and education received high ratings of effectiveness, managers using strategies of competitiveness, compliance, public appearance, and politics received only moderate effectiveness ratings.

Three out of the four strategies which received the highest effectiveness ratings were the subfactors of Larwood, Radford, and Berger's (1980) original ability factor. It is not surprising that these strategies received high ratings of effectiveness, since previous research has also shown that ability or competence is often rated as the most important factor to career success (Heisler & Gemmill, 1978; Larwood, 1975; Larwood & Kaplin, 1980; Larwood, Radford, & Berger, 1980). In fact, Larwood et al. (1980) found that having or demonstrating abilities was rated as the most important strategy for career success. The fourth strategy which received high effectiveness ratings was education. This strategy also received high ratings of importance in the Larwood et al. study (1980), and appears to be highly related to the demonstration of abilities and competence.

The same general pattern of ratings that was found for effectiveness also emerged in the appropriateness ratings. Strategies of effort, communication, sensitivity, and education were rated as very appropriate behaviors for managers, while strategies of competitiveness, compliance, public appearance, and politics received only moderate ratings of appropriateness. Vigilance was the only strategy which was rated as inappropriate. The similarity between the ratings of effectiveness and appropriateness seems to suggest that those behaviors that are perceived as appropriate for managers will also be actitives that are perceived as effective strategies for successful managers.

Causal attributions for the success of the managers using the nine career strategies showed a pattern identical to those found in the ratings of effectiveness and appropriateness. The strategies of competitiveness, effort, communication, sensitivity, and education were consistently associated with favorable, internal attributions. The success of managers who employed these strategies was attributed to high ability, high effort, high task difficulty, and low luck. On the other hand, the strategies of compliance, public appearance, politics, and vigilance received lower ratings of ability and effort and higher ratings of task ease and luck. Success as the result of employing one of these strategies was ascribed to more unfavorable, external attributions. These attributions are consistent with, although more pervasive than, the results obtained in the pilot study. The differences may simply be due to the larger sample size, and thus the greater power associated with the present study.

A strong main effect for career strategy was also found for the ratings on the eight specific management abilities. The strategy of vigilance consistently received the lowest ratings on each of the eight abilities. Politics also received low ratings on ability relative to other strategies. On the other hand, the strategies of effort, education, and communication consistently received high ratings on the eight abilities. Competitiveness received relatively high ratings on planning, representing, negotiating, supervising, and

staffing ability, and moderate ratings on investigating, coordinating, and evaluating ability. A manager using sensitivity received high ratings on ability for coordinating, evaluating, supervising, staffing, planning, and representing. Only moderate ratings, however, were given to managers using sensitivity for investigating and negotiating ability. Compliance was associated with moderate ratings on all of the eight specific abilities except negotiating. A compliant strategy received relatively low ratings on negotiating abilitiy. While a political strategy was given high ratings of representing abilitiy, it received relatively low ratings on investigating ability and moderate ratings on the remaining six abilities.

The ratings for the specific management abilities did provide information that could not have been obtained from the ratings of overall management ability. Effort, communication, and education were the only strategies that consistently resulted in high ratings on both the overall and the specific management abilities. Competitiveness and sensitivity, which were associated with overall ability, received either high or moderate ratings on specific abilities

Perhaps the most interesting finding from the ratings on the specific abilities concerned the ratings of public appearance. One might conclude that a strategy of public appearance is evidence of low management ability if only the measure of overall ability is considered. However, subjects

rated managers using public appearance as having very high representing ability. This seems to suggest that different career strategies may tap different types of management abilities. The effectiveness or success of a strategy may be dependent on the specific tasks and responsibilities of a particular management position. Although management positions generally share the characteristics associated with the eight specific abilities (Carroll and Schneier, 1982), each position may vary on the demand and focus placed on these abilities. For example, a manager whose prinicipal responsibility is to represent the interests of the company to persons outside of the organization may be very successful and effective with a strategy that uses public appearance. Conversely, a strategy of public appearance may not be as successful if the management position focuses on the collection and preparation of information for records and reports.

In sum, the significant main effect for career strategy found in each of the two ANCOVAs and the two MANCOVAs revealed a fairly consistent pattern of ratings. Managers using the strategies of competitiveness, effort, communication, sensitivity, and education received high ratings of effectiveness and appropriateness, attributions of high ability, high effort, high task difficulty, low luck, and generally high ratings on the eight specific management abilities. Managers using the strategies of compliance,

public appearance, politics, and vigilance received relatively lower ratings of effectiveness and appropriateness, attributions of low ability, low effort, low task difficulty, high luck, and generally low ratings on the eight specific management abilities.

The major difference between the results of this study and those of previous research concerned the ratings of managers who were described as using a political strategy. In the Larwood, Radford, and Berger (1980) study, politics was rated as an important advantage to career success. In fact, it received a rating of importance second only to the abilities factor. Politics has also been listed as an important part of career success in other studies (Bass, 1968; Dalton, 1951; Heisler & Gemmill, 1978). It may be that politics is important for the attainment of promotions and career advancement, but the playing of organizational politics does not neccessarily make a good or effective manager. Success can be viewed in two ways. First, career success can be seen as advancement in the organization and the attainment of benefits that accompany advancement such as pay raises, increased power, increased responsibility, etc. Second, managerial success can be seen as getting the job done, being a good and effective manager. It appears that the present study has tapped the perceptions of a good or effective manager rather than the promotability or career success of a manager. Managerial

and career success do not neccessarily go hand in hand. Previous research has suggested that while the ability to perform the job is an important part of career success, there are other factors, such as politics, which enter into promotional decisions (Bass, 1968; Dalton, 1951; Heisler & Gemmill, 1978). If the present study had asked how promotable the managers using the nine strategies were, the ratings for the political strategy may have been more in line with the Larwood et al. (1980) findings.

An alternative explanation for the relatively negative ratings that the political strategy received addressed the issue of social desireability. While it may be very socially desireable to report that a manager is successful based upon his or her basic abilities to perform the job, it may not be as desireable to ascribe a manager's success to mere organizational politics. Social desireability may also have played a role in the ratings for vigilance. Neither politics nor vigilance evoke a very positive image of a "good" manager regardless of how successful these strategies may actually be. In addition, the naivity of the college student sample concerning the realities of business practices may have strengthen any social desireability effects.

Consistent with the prevailing evidence of sex discrimination against women, the present study revealed differential evaluations of behaviors of men and women. Despite the fact that all managers were described as

"successful," the career strategies employed by men were perceived as more effective than the identical behaviors performed by women. There was a significant interaction between career strategy and sex of manager for ratings of effectiveness. Men did receive higher ratings of effectiveness, although not significantly higher, than women an all tactics except effort. In addition, the behavior of the male managers was rated as more appropriate than the same behavior exhibited by a woman. These ratings support the existence of sex role stereotypes which assert that effective managers are men (Schein, 1973; 1975). If the ratings of appropriateness are interpreted as evidence that the career strategies presented in the study are stereotypically masculine modes of performance, then the higher ratings of effectiveness for male managers could be interpreted as supporting a sex role congruency hypothesis. The career strategies are consistent with existing role stereotypes for men and inconsistent with the stereotypes for women, and thus men are evaluated more positively than women.

One of the major intentions of the present study was to examine the differential perceptions of successful male and female managers and to determine whether expectations for the mode or style of behavior which stem from sex role stereotypes affect attributions for men's and women's success. If we interpret the ratings of appropriateness as evidence that the nine career strategies were perceived

as congruent with masculine rather than feminine sex roles, attribution theory would predict that female managers' successs while employing these strategies would be perceived as an unexpected outcome, and thus attributed to nonability factors. On the other hand, male managers' success while employing these sex role congruent strategies would be perceived as an expected outcome, and attributed to ability factors.

Analysis of the attribution ratings did yield significant interactions between career strategy and sex of the manager for attributions of luck, effort, and ability. Examination of the mean ratings associated with each of these interactions revealed a consistent difference between the attributions for male and female managers employing a compliant strategy. Although the ratings of luck and effort for male managers were not significantly different from the ratings of luck and effort for female managers, compliant male managers did receive higher ratings of effort and lower ratings of luck than compliant female managers. The attributions of ability for men and women using compliance were significantly different from each other. The success of men employing a compliant strategy was attributed to significantly higher overall management ability than the success of their female counterparts

Of all the strategies the managers were described as using in the present study, compliance is perhaps the

strategy that most closely resembles the traditional feminine stereotype of submissiveness and dependence, as opposed to the traditional masculine stereotype characterized by aggressiveness and independence. If success for a woman using compliance is an expected outcome, then attribution theory would predict that the woman's success would be ascribed to ability rather than nonability factors. However, the woman who was described as using a compliant strategy was attributed with lower overall management ability, lower effort, and greater luck than the man described as acting in an identical manner. These results run counter to a sex role congruency hypothesis, which states that modes of performance consistent with existing stereotypes or expectations will be evaluated more positively than incongruent modes. It appears that managerial success as the result of employing a compliant strategy is ascribed to the more favorable, internal attributions of ability and effort for a man, but ascribed to the more unfavorable, external attribution of luck for a woman.

Perhaps what is so unexpected and thus ascribed to more unfavorable attributions is the success of a woman using a feminine style of behavior in the traditionally masculine occupation of management. It may not be unexpected for a woman to succeed as a manager when acting in a traditionally masculine manner, since those types of behaviors have been successful for men in the past. It

certainly is not unexpected for a man to be a successful manager when he has performed in a masculine mode. It also may not be unexpected for a man to be successful using more traditionally feminine styles of behavior. Rosen and Jerdee (1975) have suggested that men may have available to them a wider range of behaviors which are perceived as appropriate and effective styles than do women.

The present study also revealed a set of significant effects for sex of subject. A significant main effect for sex of subject was found for ratings of the managers' planning, negotiating, supervising, and staffing ability. Female subjects rated the managers as having higher abilities in these areas than did male subjects. Women may feel that these abilities are more important or neccessary for managerial success than do men. Powell and Butterfield (1982) also noted a tendency for female raters to give higher ratings than male managers, although these positive evaluations were not always consistent with sex role stereotypes.

In conclusion, the most striking diffferences between the perceptions of successful male and female managers in the present study occurred in the ratings of effectiveness and appropriateness. The behavior of male managers was perceived as more effective and more appropiate than the identical behavior exibited by a woman. However, a main

effect for sex of manager for attributions of the managers' success and the ratings of the eight specific abilities was not found. In fact, the interaction between career strategy and sex of manager for the attributions of success actually revealed more similarities than differences in the perceptions of successful male and female managers. Attribution theory assumes that when the expectations of men and women's success do not differ, then the attributions that are evoked to account for their success will not differ (Deaux,1984). Therefor, the present results imply that the expectations for male and female managers' success, given that they have achieved their success employing the same career strategies, are generally the same. The only consistent differences found in the attributions for success were in the ratings for compliance. Male managers using a compliant strategy were perceived more favorably than their female counterparts.

There were no significant effects for sex of manager in the ratings of the eight specific management abilities. Nieva and Gutek (1980) noted that sex biases in the evaluation of men's and women's performance often diminish when the ambiguity of the performance criteria is reduced. Ratings of overall effectiveness and appropriateness are fairly general and ambiguous criteria, and require a high level of inference on the part of the rater. When the rater is required to make a high degree of inference, these inferences are likely to be based on stereotypical beliefs

and experiences. The ratings of the eight specific abilities gave the rater a greater amount of direction and specificity as to what characteristics were to be measured. This specificity may have reduced the tendency for subjects to evoke general sex role stereotypes.

A second issue that may account for the differences found in the ratings for male and female managers is related to the salience of the sex of manager variable. The sex of the superior was entered into the descriptions to increase the salience of the managers' sex. This hightened salience may have implications for the demand characteristics of the study. If the subjects were made aware that the study was concerned with the evaluation of male and female managers, they may have differentially rated these managers in the direction that they felt would be most expected of them. Therefore, male managers received higher ratings of effectiveness and appropriateness. The sex differences diminish as the complexity of the rating task increases. It may have been less obvious to the raters what attributions are typically made for men and women's success. The task of rating the eight management abilities was, again, specific enough that the raters could focus on the characteristics of the strategy rather than the sex of the manager.

The results of this study support neither a sex role congruency nor a sex role incongruency hypothesis.

If the ratings for female and male managers are examined for only a selected subgroup of stereotypically masculine or feminine strategies, support can be demonstrated for either hypothesis. When the entire set of ratings are considered, however, neither hypothesis is supported. Rather they seen to support a more androgenous model of management. Career strategies that are successful for men are also successful for women. The successful manager may be one who employs both stereotypically feminine (e.g., sensitivity) and masculine (e.g., competitiveness) modes of performance, easily adapting to the specific demands of the task and situation.

The implications of this research for management development are that men and women should approach their management roles in a similiar manner. The strategies of effort, communication, sensitivity, and education have not only received very favorable evaluations for both men and women in the present study, but have also been rated by male and female managers as important strategies for career success in the Larwood, Radford, and Berger (1980) study. These ratings suggest that the literature and programs dealing with career development should focus on the basic demonstration of abilities. Although the strategies of competitiveness, compliance, public appearance, politics, and vigilance were rated less favorably, they may be important and successful strategies depending on the focus

and demands of a particular management position. It is unlikely and undesirable that an individual would approach a management position focusing solely on one of the above strategies. Rather a mixture of these strategies that is flexible in terms of the specific tasks that are required would perhaps be the most desireble for both managerial and career success. Future research should examine the processes by which male and female managers choose their career strategies. Larwood et al. (1980) have suggested that men and women may prefer to use different strategies. Whether male and female managers actually employ different strategies, however, has yet to be determined. Future research should move toward the verification of strategy use and the determination of how the use of these strategies affects the distribution of various organizational rewards.

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Appendix A
Career Strategy Factors

Public appearance
- being married
- never being divorced
- regularly attending a house of worship
- activity in the community affairs
- having a spouse who can handle herself/himself at company functions

Viglance
- demanding what is yours when you deserve it
- making sure others don't take what is yours
- being willing to threaten to leave
- being willing to ask for a salary increase or promotion
- having a desire for status
- placing others "in debt" to you

Politics
- having a sponsor at a high level
- unwillingness to express disagreement with superiors
- willingness to play organizational politics

Compliance
- being an advocate of company policy
- not complaining about rules and procedures

Education
- being a graduate of a high prestige college
- having a good academic record
- having an advanced college degree
- having a college degree

Effort
- willingness to work more than 40 hours per week
- giving top priority to your job

Sensitivity
- tactfulness in making suggestions to others
- readiness to accept the insight of others
- being supportive of others
- knowing when to keep quiet

Competitiveness
- being competitive
- having self-confidence
- showing self-confidence
- expressing a desire for responsibility
- assertion of your leadership abilities

Communication
- ability to express yourself clearly
- ability to sell your ideas
- ability to argue logically

Appendix B

Career Strategy Descriptions

Competitivness

Shelia Jones is a highly competitive and successful manager. Shelia has always belived that she must have complete confidence in herself before she can expect others to trust her skills as a manager. Shelia constantly assures her boss, Betty Hill, that she can successfully complete any task that Ms. Hill might assign to her. In addition, Shelia continually asks for increased responsibility in her work. Shelia will not hesitate to use her leadership qualities to take command of meetings with other managers. She uses these managers as a comparison for her success in the company and takes advantage of every available opportunity to prove herself superior to these managers.

Effort

Carol Miller has become a successful manager by giving top priority to her job. When Carol first became a manager she decided to fully dedicate her life to her job. She placed all her social and leisure activities secondary to her work responsibilities. Whenever John Wall, the head of Carol's department asks for extra help in completing a special project, Carol is the first to volunteer. Carol is always willing to put in more than her regular 40 hour work week. Carol's extra work time often enables Mr. Wall to meet difficult deadlines.

Communication

Sharon Taylor has become a successful manager by focusing on communication. Before presenting any ideas or suggestions to her boss, Janet Russell, Sharon always makes sure her thoughts and materials are well organized. This allows her to present her ideas in a clear and understandable manner. Sharon believes that it is not only important for her to express herself clearly but also to sell her ideas to Ms. Russell. Sharon always stresses the positive points of her suggestions. Sharon also identifies all the possible criticisms and doubts that Ms. Russell might have concerning her suggestions so she can prepare a logical argument against any disagreements.

Sensitivity

Ann Schell is a successful manager who has always made a point of being aware of and sensitive to the feelings of the people she works with. Even when Ann discovers a serious error in the work of her boss, Helen Berns, Ann corrects Ms. Burns in a polite and respectful manner. Ann also recognizes that there are times when it is best to keep her opinions to herself. In addition, Ann makes herself available and open to suggestions from those employees who work under her management. She presents herself as the type of woman who is always ready to listen to another person's ideas. Generally, she is supportive of all employees within the company.

Education

When Kathy Owens first became interested in starting a managerial career she began work on acquiring a strong educational background in the field. In her search for a good undergraduate education, she applied to only top name universities. While working on her undergraduate degree, Kathy accumulated a very impressive academic record. She received high grades in all her classes while carrying difficult course loads. Immediately after graduation she began work on an advanced graduate degree in business management at one of the best universities in the country. Kathy's educational background has played a major role in her managerial success. Pam Thomas, Kathy's supervisor, frequently refers to Kathy's education as her most valuable asset. Of all the managers under her direct supervision, Ms. Thomas believes that Kathy has by far received the best educational training.

Compliance

Emily Clark is a manager who operates strictly by the rules. From her first day on the job, Emily decided to respect and obey all company rules and regulations. Emily's compliance with company guidelines has played a major role in her success as a manager. In order to avoid breaking a rule that she was unaware existed, Emily constantly studies the company's official policies. In addition, Emily frequently asks her boss, Vicki Wilson, if there have been any changes in standard procedures. When Ms. Wilson notifies Emily of modifications in the regulations, Emily always supports and obeys these changes even if it means a complete disruption of her work schedule.

Public Appearance

An important part of Mary Reed's success as a manager is her concern to maintain a good public image both at work and within the community. Mary is married and has never been divorced. Mr. Reed is a friendly and well educated man who is very enthusiastic about Mary's work. Mary's boss, Laura Turner, frequently comments on how well Mr. Reed handles himself at company functions. Within the community, Mary regularly attends a house of worship. In addition, she gives a great deal of her time to organizing and participating in various neighborhood projects.

Politics

A major factor in Martha Jacob's managerial success is the support and guidance she receives from Linda Anderson Ms. Anderson is a higher level manager in the company who serves as Martha's business sponsor or counselor. When Martha was newly employed as a manager, her first priority was to find someone who had been with the company for several years who could provide her with professional advice about how to be successful in the organization. Martha also made an attempt early in her career to become aware of the organizational politics which were played within the company. The sooner she could discover what was considered appropriate and inappropriate attitudes and behaviors by her superiors, the sooner she could begin to win the support of other managers such as Ms. Anedrson. Martha has adopted a personal policy to never express direct disagreement with her superiors, but rather she always tries to support their opinions and activities.

Vigilance

Karen Hanson has reached the higher levles of management by demanding recognition and reward for her business accomplishments. When Karen first entered the company she made a point of doing favors for other managers. Later in her career, Karen was able to call on these managers to return the favor. She also placed herself on gaurd against other employees who might try to take credit for her work. When this situation arises, Karen promptly corrects the manager involved and makes her superiors aware of the conflict. When Karen feels that her work merits special recognition, she uses this opportunity to confronther boss, Susan Hardy, and ask for a salary increase or promotion. If Ms. Hardy does not satisfactorily reward Karen for her work, Karen is always prepared to threaten to leave the company.

Appendix C

Rating Scales

How much effort did this employee put into his(her) managerial duties and responsibilities?

1	2	3	4	5
little		average		a lot

This employee's management duties can be characterized as:

1	2	3	4	5
easy		average		difficult

To what extent is this employee's success as a manager the result of a lucky break?

1	2	3	4	5
little		average		a lot

Rate this employee's overall management ability:

1	2	3	4	5
low		average		high

Rate this manager's ability to plan and determine goals and policies:

1	2	3	4	5
low		average		high

Rate this manager's ability to represent the interests of the company to persons outside of the organization:

1	2	3	4	5
low		average		high

Rate this manager's ability to collect and prepare information for records and reports:

1	2	3	4	5
low		average		high

Rate this manager's ability to purchase and sell products for the company:

1	2	3	4	5
low		average		high

Rate this manager's ability to coordinate and exchange information with other managers in the company:

1	2	3	4	5
low		average		high

Rate this manager's ability to evaluate the work performance of employees:

1	2	3	4	5
low		average		high

Rate this manager's ability to supervise, direct, and lead employees:

1	2	3	4	5
low		average		high

Rate this manager's ability to recruit, hire promote, and transfer employees:

1	2	3	4	5
low		average		high

Rate the appropriateness of this manager's behavior:

1	2	3	4	5
very appropriate		moderately appropriate		inappropriate

Rate the effectiveness of this manager's behavior:

1	2	3	4	5
very effective		moderately effective		inappropriate

Causal Attributions for Successful Career Strategies

by

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Abstract

Ninty-five male and 100 female undergraduate students were presented with nine brief scenarios describing either all male or all female managers who had employed one of nine career strategies to achieve their corporate success. Despite the fact that all managers were described as "successful," the career strategies employed by men were rated as more appropriate and effective than the identical behaviors exhibited by women. Managers using the strategies of competitiveness, effort, communication, sensitivity, and education received high ratings of effectiveness and appropriateness, attributions of high ability, high effort, high task difficulty, low luck, and generally high ratings on eight specific management abilities. Managers using the strategies of compliance, public appearance, politics, and vigilance received relatively lower ratings of effectiveness and appropriateness, attributions of low ability, low effort, low task difficulty, high luck, and generally low ratings on the eight specific management abilities. These results support neither a sex role congruency nor a sex role incongruency hypothesis. The implications of this research for management development programs is also discussed.